

JANUARY

PRICE 20 CENTS

1905

The CHAUTAUQUAN

*A Magazine of
Things Worth While*

CHANGES
IN THE COMMON SCHOOL
CURRICULUM

Walter L. Hervey

EVERGREENS

Anna Botsford Comstock

SURVEY OF
CIVIC BETTERMENT

TALK
ABOUT BOOKS

HIGHWAYS AND BYWAYS
Illustrated

ENGLAND AND THE INDUS-
TRIAL REVOLUTION

Frederic Austin Ogg

HAMBURG, KIEL AND
LUBECK

Wolf von Schierbrand

THE PLAY MOVEMENT IN
GERMANY

H. S. Curtis

BEETHOVEN AND HIS MUSIC

Thomas Whitney Surette

PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIAL
WELFARE

James Rowland Angell

THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS

CHAUTAUQUA, NEW YORK

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A Monthly Magazine of Things Worth While

Official Publication of Chautauqua Institution

Contents for January, 1905.

Cover Design.

| | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| Map of War Zone in the Far East..... | Frontispiece. |
| Highways and Byways..... | 401-412 |
| A New Era in Russia. Victories for World Peace. Future of the Parties. Socialistic and Labor Vote. A National Postal Telegraph. Lynching and Federal Law. Complaints against the Liquor Dispensary. An Important Boycott Case. Church and State in Italy. Industry and the World's Savings. What the Paragraphers Say. With Portraits of General Stoessel, Alva Adams, James H. Peabody, John A. Johnson, W. L. Douglas, Francis E. Leupp, W. Murray Crane, and Samuel Gompers. Caricatures and Other Illustrations. | |
| England and the Industrial Revolution..... | Frederic Austin Ogg..... 413 |
| Social Progress in Europe. Illustrated. | |
| Hamburg, Kiel and Lubeck..... | Wolf von Schierbrand..... 423 |
| A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany. Illustrated. | |
| Beethoven and His Music, I..... | Thomas Whitney Surette..... 438 |
| German Master Musicians. Illustrated. | |
| The Play Movement in Germany..... | Henry S. Curtis..... 445 |
| Civic Lessons from Europe. Illustrated. | |
| Contemporary Psychology..... | James Rowland Angell..... 453 |
| Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare. | |
| Changes in the Common School Curriculum..... | Walter L. Hervey..... 459 |
| How the American Boy is Educated. | |
| The Evergreens, II..... | Anna Botsford Comstock..... 465 |
| Nature Study. Illustrated. | |
| Modern European Idealists..... | 469 |
| Count Leo Nikolaievich Tolstoy. With Portrait. | |
| Survey of Civic Betterment..... | 470 |
| About Play and Playgrounds. Organisation and Equipment of Playgrounds. Playgrounds as Social Centers. Why Some Boys are "Bad." Playgrounds for all Children. From Men who Know. The Home or Neighborhood Sandpile. Transforming a Lake. From the Field. Civic Progress Programs: Play and Playgrounds. | |
| News Summary and Current Events Programs..... | 479 |
| Chautauqua Spare Minute Course..... | 481 |
| C. L. S. C. Round Table..... | 482 |
| The Chancellor's New Year's Greeting. The New Hall in the Grove. Appreciative Words from Givers. The "Browning" Class of 1905. The Chautauqua Exhibit at St. Louis. A Shakespeare Game. Notes. Outline of Required Reading for February. Suggestive Programs for Local Circles. The Travel Club. Answers to Search Questions on January Readings. The Library Shelf. News from Readers and Circles. Illustrated. | |
| Talk About Books..... | 494 |

THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS,

FRANK CHAPIN BRAY, Editor.

EDITORIAL BOARD.

GEORGE E. VINCENT,
Principal of Instruction, Chautauqua Institution.

CHARLES ZUEBLIN,
American Civic Association.

W. W. WITMEYER,
Springfield, Ohio.

SCOTT BROWN,
General Director, Chautauqua Institution.

EASTERN ADVERTISING OFFICE,
New York, N. Y.

BUSINESS AND SUBSCRIPTION OFFICES,
Chautauqua, New York.

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL,
Executive Secretary, C. L. S. C.,
EDWIN S. HOUCK,
Springfield, Ohio.

MISS JANE ADDAMS,
Hull-House, Chicago, Illinois.

JOHN L. ZIMMERMAN,
Springfield, Ohio.

WESTERN ADVERTISING OFFICE,
Chicago, Illinois.

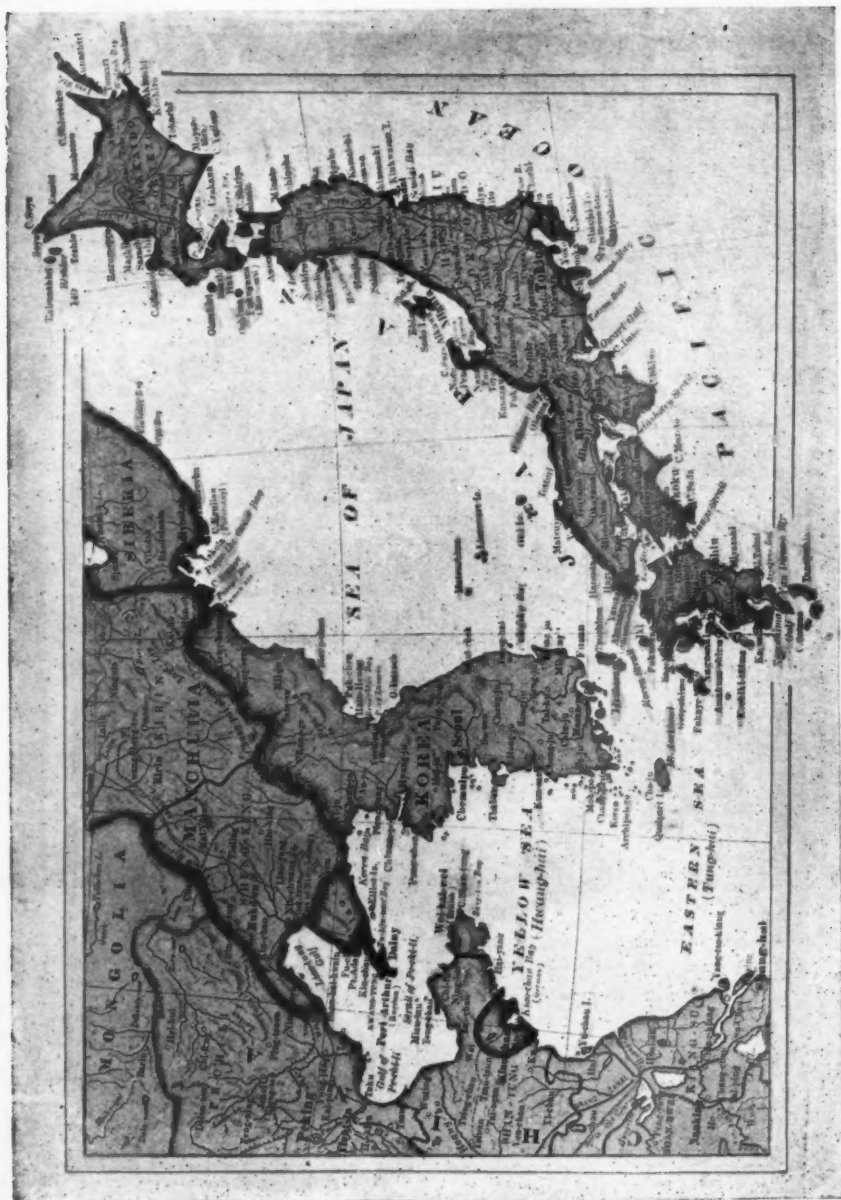
Entered according to Act of Congress January, 1905, by THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS, in the office of the Librarian of Congress, Washington, D. C.

Yearly Subscription, \$2.00. Single Copies, 20c.

Published by THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS, Publishing Department Chautauqua Institution.

Entered September 9, 1904, at the post office at Chautauqua, New York, as second class mail matter, under act of Congress March 3, 1879.





MAP OF WAR ZONE IN THE FAR EAST

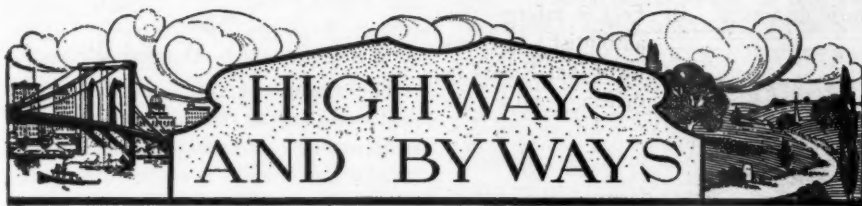
Showing the geographical and strategic position of the besieged Port Arthur.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XL.

JANUARY, 1905.

No. 5.



IN the higher politics, the international event of the latter part of November was the Russian *zemstvos*. It is hoped and believed in progressive circles the world over that this remarkable meeting, the first of its kind ever held in Russia, may prove the beginning of constitutional government in that great but backward empire.

What are the *zemstvos*? Provincial and district (or county) councils, elective bodies, to which each class of society—the nobility, the middle class, and the peasantry—sends its quota of representatives. These bodies, theoretically speaking, have no political functions. They raise local rates and attend to public works, charity, sanitation and education. They have not been on good terms with the central bureaucracy and its agents in the provinces, and since the early eighties of the last century their activities have been steadily restricted. During the Plehve régime the *zemstvos* were treated with special harshness, and coöperation between any two or more of them for the most innocent purposes, such as relief of the wounded, was sternly prohibited. Leaders were exiled and punished for expressing liberal opinions or suggesting greater freedom of *zemstvo* activity. Any dissatisfaction with existing conditions was construed as sedition and treason. Some of Plehve's followers did not hesitate to demand the abolition of these "dangerous" bodies.

When Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky succeeded Plehve as minister of the interior

he promptly announced a reversal of the reactionary policy toward the *zemstvos*. He pleaded for confidence between the people and the government and invited honest discussion of national needs. The conference of *zemstvo* presidents was an outcome of this change of attitude and it was fully expected that the gathering would be public and formal. The program prepared for the conference was non-political.

Under the influence of the implacable and Bourbon officials, however, the Tzar at the eleventh hour withdrew all official recognition from the conference. It was obliged to meet in secret in private residences. The newspapers were forbidden to publish any account of its proceedings or resolutions. It would have been prohibited entirely, it is presumed, had not Mirsky threatened to resign, and had not the Tzar felt that such an event, in the circumstances caused by the unpopular war with Japan, might produce serious consequences. The conference was thus held under Prince Mirsky's auspices and protection; indeed, he had to guarantee the delegates immunity from arrest and prosecution.

Once assembled, these representative men—leaders of the nobility, the spokesmen of the "best blood and culture of Russia," as they have been called—determined, before proceeding with the discussion of routine, administrative, local matters, to draw up a memorial to the Tzar setting forth the essential needs, wishes and aspirations of the nation. The

Highways and Byways

memorial, as summarized in foreign dispatches, that are not subject to the censoring process, is a very bold, significant, historic document. In effect, it informs the



GENERAL STOESEL
Russian commander at Port
Arthur.

absolutist government that Russia is drifting toward revolution and anarchy — calamities which can be averted only by conceding important reforms. The bureaucracy is severely criticized and held responsible for the want of sympathy and good will between the Tzar and nation. Among the recommendations made are:

Extension of local autonomy.

Personal security of the subject, and due process of law for all; no trials except by constitutional tribunals and under fixed forms; no administrative exile.

Freedom of conscience and of speech and publication.

A system of national education.

Finally, the memorial expresses the hope that "it is the wish of the Tzar to convene a national assembly" to participate in legislation. This is a demand for a parliament, for a constitutional government.

The memorial voices the sentiments of the great majority of the people. "Sympathetic demonstrations" have been held in many cities to express agreement with the contents of the document. The reactionary elements are bewildered, but it is impossible for them to dispute the fact that the nation has condemned the autocracy and approved the liberal, progressive program. They will not surrender, and the Tzar, who is a weak and irresolute man, will have to decide definitely which side to follow. Russia is on the eve of a great internal crisis. Disregard of the zemstvo warning and appeal will be a signal for the revival of violence and

terrorism. Concessions and compromise, on the other hand, will usher in a new era and sound the knell of autocracy.



Victories for World Peace

The closing of the North Sea "incident" without a rupture between Great Britain and Russia is a source of keen satisfaction to all lovers of peace and international amity. The jingo press and the unscrupulous politicians of both countries were aggressive and eager for war. The tact and coolness of the higher officials fortunately proved equal to the emergency, and the agreement to refer the issue to an international tribunal under the rules of The Hague convention insures a happy solution of the difficulty.

By the terms of this agreement, the commission must determine, on the evidence presented to it by the contending parties, whether or not the firing by the Baltic fleet on the trawlers was the result of a blunder, or whether there actually were torpedo boats, or any craft that intended any attack on the Russian ships. The inquiry at Hull by the British Board of Trade (a department of the government) developed no evidence indicating the presence of any Japanese war vessels in the North Sea at the time of the tragedy, and the probability is that the international commission will reach a verdict at once adverse and humiliating to Russia.

In that event, the commission will have to fix the responsibility for the blunder, the punishment of the guilty officers being left to Russia herself. The commission consists of five naval officers of high rank, Great Britain and Russia having one member each, the others representing neutral nations. The impartiality of its verdict is a foregone conclusion.

The second victory for international peace is found in the new strength and momentum acquired by the arbitration movement. Since the Anglo-French treaty was signed several other similar

conventions have been concluded, and more are in process of negotiation. All the great European powers, the United States, Mexico, and even Central and South America are interested in this movement. These treaties will not do away with war, for questions of honor and sovereignty and integrity are distinctly excluded, but they cannot fail to diminish friction and misunderstanding, and to prevent minor controversies, at any rate, from becoming causes (or pretexts) of war.

Finally it is to be recorded with pleasure that President Roosevelt's call for a second Hague conference has been favorably responded to by most of the important powers. In principle, even France, Russia's ally, indorses the suggestion. The time and place of the gathering have not been fixed, and may not be until after the Russo-Japanese war, for the questions named for discussion—the duties of neutrals, the coaling of belligerent fleets, contraband, etc.—have repeatedly arisen in the course of this conflict. Whenever held, the conference will assuredly mark another stride toward the goal of civilization, the supremacy of industrialism.

Future of the Parties

What are the lessons of the November elections, and what are the likely effects of the overwhelming Roosevelt-Republican victory on the future of American politics? Ex-Judge Parker, Mr. Bryan,



IN FULL COMMAND

—From the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*.

Mr. Watson, and other leaders have been discussing this question, and the press, naturally, has paid it considerable attention. The general feeling is that the Democratic party must be reorganized again and provided with a positive and significant platform. Mr. Parker believes that the great issue of the future for the party will be the abolition of the "vicious tariff-fed trusts and illegal monopolies" whose money, he thinks, controls national elections. Mr. Bryan declares that the party must put away opportunism and half-measures and become bold and radical. To quote a long address which he issued after the elections:

The Democratic party if it hopes to win success, must take the side of the plain, common people. . . . The election has opened the eyes of the hundreds and thousands of honest and well-meaning Democrats who a few months ago favored the reorganization of the party. These men now see that they must either go into the Republican party or join with the Democrats of the West and South in making the Democratic party a positive, aggressive and progressive reform organization. There is no middle ground.

Mr. Bryan would not abandon any of the issues for which the party has stood—tariff revision, anti-imperialism, economy, etc.—but he would add the following "planks" which he believes to be needful and desirable: State ownership of railways, the postal telegraph system, the election of federal judges for fixed terms and the election of postmasters by the people.

This platform is described, in the press, as Populistic, yet even the conservative papers, including Republican organs of stalwart affiliations, recognize that the Democratic party must make itself the mouthpiece of the radical sentiment of the country. Mr. Watson, the Populist candidate, hastens to assert, however, from his point of view, that this cannot be realized, because the Bryan elements are not strong enough to prevail over and "drive out" the Cleveland-Parker element. The party, according to Mr. Wat-

son, is politically dead, and Populism will absorb all that is sound in it. Mr. Watson says this about the future:

My own plans for the future embrace a



ALVA ADAMS
Governor-elect of
Colorado.

complete organization of the people along the lines of Jeffersonian Democracy, the re-establishment of reform papers, and a systematic propaganda of Jeffersonian principles, in order that in 1908 there shall be a party of genuine opposition to the Republican party and its present policies. . . .

Mr. Bryan has no substantial reasons for believing that he can ever get the national Demo-

cratic party to adopt the Populist program which he has just formulated. The Democratic party never did do it, and the assumption is that it never will.

It is not likely that any serious "re-organization" work will be attempted in the near future. Democratic leaders will hold conferences and discuss the situation, but the actual course of the party as a whole will necessarily depend on the "logic of events."

Especially will it depend on the policies of the triumphant party. The Republicans realize that in the very completeness of their victory there lurks danger. With control there goes responsibility. The people, it is recognized, did not vote for the *status quo*, for a do-nothing policy. They expect the Republicans to wrestle with the tariff, trust, railroad and other questions. They expect a revision of the Dingley act, reciprocity with Canada and other countries, and prosecution of all illegal monopolies. "There is a rising tide of radicalism in the country," say the Republican papers, and the Roosevelt administration must check it by responding to the demand for needed reforms.

Already the politicians are considering the expediency of a special session of the new Congress next spring for the purpose of moderate tariff legislation. It is understood that the "short session" of the present Congress will attempt nothing in this direction. Of additional anti-trust legislation nothing is said, but there are rumors of government suits against certain trusts under existing law. In short, the perplexities and misgivings are not all on the Democratic side.



Socialistic and Labor Vote

It is an accepted view that there is no such thing as a "labor vote" in American national and state elections. The trade unions are not "in politics," and they do not formally commit themselves to any party. Were an attempt made to carry politics into the unions, disruption would follow—so the argument runs—for workmen, like all other bodies of citizens, are divided on such questions as the tariff, foreign policy, expansion, trusts, etc.

There is much truth in this position, but less than there once was. Labor is gradually asserting itself in politics as an independent and separate factor, as an element conscious of its special interest. It does this quietly, on election day rather than in meetings and resolutions, and it is a serious question whether it will not soon change its tactics, and, like the British unions, frankly form a political party.

In the recent general elections, it is recognized, the labor vote played a very important part. It elected a Democrat governor of Massachusetts by a plurality of 35,000 when the national Republican ticket had a plurality of over 85,000. Mr. Douglas, the successful candidate, made his canvass on the tariff-reform and reciprocity issue chiefly, but it is not this to which he owes his election. Rather does he owe it to the support of organized labor. He is a leading shoe manufacturer who has been on excellent terms with the

unions, and workingmen of all parties, including Socialists, voted for him.

In Colorado it was the labor vote which defeated Governor Peabody and elected Mr. Adams, while in New York City, it is asserted, thousands of labor votes were cast against the national and state tickets on account of the activity of certain unpopular employers and heads of corporations in their behalf. Will not, it is asked, manifestations like these gradually lead to more direct political action by organized labor?

The union leaders adhere to the view that such action would do more harm than good. In his annual report to the American Federation of Labor, Mr. Gompers reiterated the negative advice he had so often given before. Yet the tendency

seems to be in the opposite direction.

There is, however, no reason for thinking that labor is drifting into Socialism. The gains of the party, whose candidate was Eugene V.

Debs, were extraordinary, especially in Illinois, Ohio, Wisconsin and New York. It polled over 500,000 votes—an increase of over 600 per cent compared with the Debs vote of 1900; but the most competent students of the situation are inclined to believe that this is a temporary and accidental phenomenon.

It is supposed that many Democratic and Republican workmen voted for Mr. Debs because, Populism having disappeared as a factor, that was the only mode of registering their protest against the policies of the dominant parties. That they accept the Socialist doctrine and program is not regarded as a necessary or even reasonable inference.

The view which the Socialists themselves take of their gains is well expressed in this extract from an editorial of the New York organ of the party:

Yet we may express a certain satisfaction in the overwhelming defeat of the Democratic party when it is accompanied by an unprecedented increase in the Socialist vote, inasmuch as it brings nearer a clear drawing of the lines between the one party of capitalism on the one side and the one party of socialism on the other. The Democratic party does not know where it stands. It tries to stand on both sides, on all sides and in the middle at once, and it deserves to die. Henceforth, in spite of the efforts to galvanize this corpse into life, we may recognize that the issue is clearly drawn between Republicanism and Socialism, and in that clear drawing of the issue we rejoice.



JAMES H. PEABODY
Contesting governorship of Colorado.



SPEAKER CANNON IS GOING TO INTRODUCE
A NEW WORD IN CONGRESS

The startled members have appropriation bills for "balloon corps of army," "naval station at Waco, Texas," "postoffice at Red Dog, Nevada," "my cousin to deepen Coon creek," "to buy typewriters for educated Indians," etc., ranging from \$8,000,000 to nothing less than \$100,000.

—From the Chicago Tribune.

Reform Through Referendum

Popular indifference to measures and propositions not closely identified with striking personalities is a ground often



JOHN A. JOHNSON
New governor of
Minnesota.

advanced against the wider application of the referendum. It is true that it is not easy to secure, by means of the referendum, reforms to which little attention is given in the press, and it is true that even important constitutional amendments have failed of approval because of the neglect of the voters to mark their ballots with refer-

ence to them. Still the late elections showed that it is not impossible to arouse general interest in measures of popular opinion.

In Wisconsin the people decisively approved a law for "direct primaries"—that is, for the nomination by the voters at the primary elections of all state, county and local officials. Gov. La Follette has for years vigorously advocated this law, but his enemies in his own party have successfully resisted his efforts—till now. The popular vote gives Wisconsin the most complete and radical direct primary election act ever drawn in the United States. The convention is rendered totally unnecessary, though parties may, if they choose, hold them to ratify the selections of the voters, and provide platforms. Each candidate for an office will have to appeal to the voters and submit his claim or title to the coveted distinction. It will be made easier to fight bossism and machine tyranny, and minorities will have a chance.

In Illinois there were no fewer than seven distinct propositions to vote for at the November elections. Not one failed

for want of attention, and none was rejected. Omitting those that were of purely local interest, the people of Illinois voted for the following propositions:

1. A constitutional amendment enabling the legislature to give Chicago a new charter, her present charter being antiquated and inadequate and productive of manifold evils.

2. For a law permitting "home rule in taxation"—that is, empowering any city, town, etc., to raise its revenue in its own way, on condition of contributing its proper share to the state revenue.

3. For a general referendum law applicable to all legislation.

4. For a direct primary, and nominations of candidates by the voters.

The last three propositions were "academic." They were submitted under the state public policy act which provides for the reference of measures proposed by a certain number of qualified voters in order to ascertain the opinion of the majority thereon. The legislature is not bound to give the popular recommendations thus obtained legal effect in the form of legislation. But knowledge of popular sentiment and desire is not amiss to any honest



CONGRESS WILL TAKE UP TARIFF REVISION

—From the Chicago Record-Herald.

legislator. The referendum and direct nominations bid fair to become the most prominent topic of political discussion in the United States.

Los Angeles is experimenting with another application of the principle of the referendum, under the provision of a new charter whereby, upon petition of twenty-five per cent of the voters, at the last previous election, any city officer may be "recalled" through a special election which the city council must call. One councilman has thus been "recalled" by the voters in his ward, on account of the passage of a much criticized contract for printing. Press reports show public approval of the new law and it is understood that its constitutionality can now be tested.



A National Postal Telegraph

The current discussion of municipal, state, and national ownership of "natural" monopolies, as the alternative to the abuses of corporate monopoly, lends special interest to the striking presentation by an Australian barrister and ex-official of the facts with regard to the postal telegraph system of the country.



TIME FOR TARIFF REVISION

G. O. P.—Mr. Tailor, I wish you would have the up-to-date creases put in my pants, they are getting very baggy at the knees.

—From the Minneapolis Journal.

Australia has 48,000 miles of telegraph lines. The commonwealth owns them all, having taken them over, along with the postal service, after federation had been effected. The telegraph stations number 3,000—one for every 1,300 inhabitants. The rate for messages is as follows: 12 cents for 16 words in town or suburban service, 18 cents for the same number of words to any point within the same state, and 24 cents for a message to any part of the federation. The statistics show that two and a half messages a year are, on the average, transmitted for every inhabitant.

Turn to the United States, whose area is practically equal to that of Australia. We have one station for every 3,000 inhabitants, and our wires carry one message a year per inhabitant. The rates are from two or three times as high. Yet the Americans are the most enterprising, alert and commercially progressive people in the world. Why do we yield precedence in telegraph service to a nation of 4,000,000 people born, as it were, yesterday?

The difference in favor of Australia is attributed by the writer of the article referred to, and by many American commentators, to the fact that the government there owns and operates the whole system. Not only is there great economy in combining the post-office and telegraph station and in administering the two services as one system, but the government is satisfied with the low return on the capital, 3 per cent interest on the cost. There is no stock watering and no "exploitation" of the patrons. A private monopoly necessarily charges higher rates than a



WILLIAM L. DOUGLAS
New governor of
Massachusetts.

public body does, profits being the only purpose in view. Many private monopolies charge "what the traffic will bear," regardless even of their own



FRANCIS E. LEUPP
Recently appointed
Indian Commissioner.

ultimate interest.

There may be evils in the Australian system which its friends have not disclosed, and it is doubtless rash to base on the data at hand a plea for a government postal-system in this country. It is obvious, however, that the experience of "Newest England" is worthy of sympathetic study and attention.

Lynching and Federal Law

An interesting and remarkable theory in regard to the suppression of lynching, or at least lynchings of a certain kind, has been promulgated by Judge Thomas G. Jones, federal circuit judge for Alabama. Judge Jones is a Southerner and a Democrat, and presumably a strong upholder of state rights; coming from him, therefore, the theory is considered to be peculiarly significant.

It has been generally assumed that the federal government has no jurisdiction of lynching cases. In the eye of the law, the lynching of any man is murder, and what has the federal government to do with a murder committed in any state? Can Congress punish one Alabama citizen for a crime against another Alabama citizen, no federal question being involved? It will be remembered that in the case of the Italians lynched several years ago at New Orleans, the United States government, in answering a protest from Rome, pointed out that it had no power to interfere in the affair, or to dictate to the state of Louisiana any particular course or policy in the premises.

Judge Jones takes the position that in all reasoning of this purport an important distinction has been overlooked. When a criminal or a man suspected of crime is lynched or maltreated because of his alleged crime, and the assault upon him is inspired by revenge or hatred of *the crime*, or even of him *as a criminal*, the matter concerns the state alone, and federal grand juries, judges or executive officials have no authority to deal with it in any manner. But when a criminal or alleged criminal is killed, maimed, injured or maltreated not because of the crime, but because of his particular race, color or previous condition of servitude; if, in other words, the action of the mob is due to race hatred or race prejudice, then the federal government may and should assume jurisdiction. The power to interfere in such cases is conferred by the thirteenth and fourteenth amendments and by the statutory enactments of Congress designed to give these constitutional provisions force and vitality. The Thirteenth Amendment expressly dealt with races; it created rights which had not been legally recognized before; it conferred freedom and contemplated appropriate statutory legislation to secure that freedom. The Fourteenth Amendment guaranteed equal protection of the laws and due process of law to all citizens. This amendment is addressed to the states, not to individuals, but has not Congress power to provide for the punishment of individuals who resist a state and prevent it from performing its duty under the amendment?

Judge Jones holds that this power exists, and that when a mob deprives a state of the power to enforce the amendment the federal authorities may indict and, upon conviction, punish the members of the mob. He concludes that when a colored man is lynched under circumstances which indicate that a white man, accused of the same crime, would not have been lynched, the federal government has jurisdiction.

This doctrine could be applied to other cases, including the lawless deportations of Colorado, provided men were deported under the influence of prejudice against the class or condition to which they belonged. It would be interesting to know the opinion of the Supreme Court of this novel distinction.



Complaints against the Liquor Dispensary

No experiment in connection with the effort to find some practical solution of the liquor problem has attracted more attention than the South Carolina liquor dispensary system, which was adopted under Governor Tillman, its chief advocate.

This system was a compromise between prohibition and license. In principle there is no difference between high license and low license, and even from the expediency point of view temperance reformers do not feel that high license sufficiently restricts the sale of intoxicating beverages. The state liquor dispensary offered itself as a golden mean between prohibition and insufficient regulation. The state buys liquor and sells it at various places under proper labels, the profits going into the school fund or for some other public purpose, and no private person is allowed to deal in spirits and intoxicants.

The dispensaries were established in South Carolina some six years ago. At first there was much opposition to the system, but gradually it was acquiesced in, and the country was led to suppose that it was justified by its fruits. It appears, however, that it is again unpopular, and that one county, Cherokee, voted on it and by a majority of about 6 to 1 condemned the dispensary.

According to some leading newspapers of the state, there is much corruption in the management of these institutions and in the relations between the state agents in charge and the dealers or their salesmen and drummers. There is, too, not a little illicit selling in the larger cities.

Senator Tillman said in one of his speeches in defense of the system: "If the dispensary cannot be lifted out of the fog of suspicion which hangs over it, I am for killing it." He believes, however, that the law can be so amended as to make wrongdoing and abuse under it inconsiderable. He would permit the sale of beer by private persons, and would have an elective board of control to supervise the state's liquor traffic.

The law has been revised more than once, it is stated and may be revised again.

There is no probability of its immediate repeal though public opinion leans more decidedly than ever toward complete local option—that is, toward legislation allowing the citizens of any community to choose between prohibition, any kind of license and the dispensary. Perhaps the last-named plan would be more promising if the federal Supreme Court had not held that liquor may be imported for private consumption into South Carolina in "original packages" in spite of the law. As a temperance measure the law was greatly weakened by the decision.



W. MURRAY CRANE

Successor to
George F. Hoar,
Massachusetts.



An Important Boycott Case

The Supreme Court of the United States recently affirmed the decision of the highest court of Wisconsin in a case involving the question of the right of boycotting in one of its milder forms. At the time the Northern Securities suit was decided, many thought that the opinions of the justices indicated a strong tendency to modify the court's drastic construction of

the anti-trust law in favor of corporate freedom to form combinations in partial or *reasonable* restraint of trade and competition; and the significance of the decision in the Wisconsin case lies in the evidence it affords that no such disposition really exists, and that anti-restraint of trade and anti-monopoly laws are interpreted as they were years ago.

Three Milwaukee newspapers had formed a business combination against a fourth paper, a common competitor, that had seen fit to raise its advertising rates. They had agreed that, if any person should consent to pay the higher rates of their competitor, he should not be permitted to advertise in their respective pages except at a corresponding advance of the rates, while any advertiser who should refuse to pay the increased rate of the same competing newspaper, should be allowed to use their space at the regular rates.

The effect of this was to injure the business of the common competitor and make it unprofitable for advertisers to use its columns. It amounted to an indirect boycott of that paper. Was the agreement a legitimate one? There is a statute in Wisconsin imposing fine or imprisonment on any two or more persons who "combine for the purpose of wilfully or maliciously injuring another in his reputation, trade, business or profession by any means whatever." It is plain that the newspaper agreement set forth above was a violation of this act, and the state courts so held. Before the Supreme Court of the United States it was argued, however, that the statute was in conflict with the Fourteenth Amendment and a denial of the right of liberty and property (business being a property right) without due process of law. Legislatures, it was contended, had not the power to punish combinations for the purpose of "wilfully," but not maliciously, injuring a compet-

itor in the course of trade, the motive being personal interest or benefit.

The Supreme Court held, however, that the Fourteenth Amendment was not intended to preserve the freedom to combine to inflict injury upon business or reputation, and that the states might prohibit such combinations, even when not malicious in the strict sense of the term. The decision seems to be a blow at commercial boycotting in general and at many forms of injury in "the course of trade" which have been deemed legitimate.



STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT

Presented to the United States by Emperor William of Germany. Unveiled at Washington, November 19, in front of the new American War College. A replica in bronze (heroic size, standing more than seven feet, on granite pedestal) of original statue by Uphues at Emperor's palace, Potsdam.

Church and State in Italy

Parliamentary elections were held in Italy in the first week of November. The government was forced to appeal to the country, the parties of the left—the Socialists, Radicals and Republicans having, by obstruction and otherwise, brought about a condition of legislative paralysis. The Giolitti ministry, which is Liberal, had maintained friendly relations with the left, but after the general strike against government interference in industrial controversies, and the disorder and violence which attended it in several cities, the premier found it necessary to break with his radical allies and make an appeal to all conservative classes in behalf of law and order and national tranquility.

Primarily, the appeal was addressed to the loyal Catholics, the firm champions of the temporal claims of the Pope. It is known, of course, that since the establishment of Italian unity the Vatican has prohibited its supporters from voting or otherwise participating in the political affairs of the country. The government and parliament have thus been "boycotted" by the Catholics, and there has been no clerical party in the kingdom, though in every other country of Continental Europe, not excepting the strongholds of Protestantism, there are strong clerical parties. As a result of this Catholic abstention, the liberal and radical groups or factions exert far greater influence than their respective strength and numbers would give them under normal political conditions. Indeed, the whole political situation in Italy is chaotic in the extreme.

In the late elections, for the first time in the history of United Italy, conservative Catholics voted in certain localities for ministerial candidates, and in two districts clerical candidates were successful. The Pope had refused to recall the veto order of his predecessors, but it was understood that the boycott of the Quirinal

was no longer so rigid as heretofore. The Vatican desired to aid the forces of conservatism in their conflict with those of radicalism, socialism and free thought, and in a quiet way the bishops encouraged voting for ministerial candidates.

This is the most noteworthy feature of the election. It is believed to argue a gradual *rapprochement* between the church and the state, and in a few years a strong clerical party may hold the balance of power in the Italian parliament. Aside from this, there has been no important changes in the situation. The govern-

ment of Giolitti, mildly liberal, has increased its following somewhat, while the Socialists have lost 27 seats. They are still formidable, however, and the victory of the ministry is not decisive. It may find the task of government as difficult as before. One of its promises calls for the nationalization of the railroads—a plan opposed by the conservatives. A reduction of military and naval expenditures, while needed, is unlikely.



SAMUEL GOMPERS
Re-elected president
American Federation
of Labor.



Industry and the World's Savings

A statement published by the Department of Commerce and Labor furnishes interesting data concerning the savings banks and the thrift of the leading nations. It appears that we contribute nearly three times our natural quota of the deposits recorded. The deposits per capita vary from \$96.41 for Denmark to 15 cents for Italy. The American per capita is \$37.38. The average deposits range from \$418

Highways and Byways

in the United States to \$5.48 in Japan. Here is the detailed exhibit:

| | Depositors. | Total Deposits. |
|---------------------|-------------|------------------|
| United States | 7,305,443 | \$3,060,178,611 |
| Germany | 15,432,211 | 2,273,406,226 |
| United Kingdom .. | 11,093,469 | 966,854,253 |
| Austria | 4,946,307 | 876,941,933 |
| France | 11,298,474 | 847,224,910 |
| Italy | 6,740,138 | 482,263,472 |
| Russia | 4,950,607 | 445,014,951 |
| Hungary | 1,717,515 | 432,810,515 |
| Denmark | 1,203,120 | 236,170,057 |
| Switzerland | 1,300,000 | 193,000,000 |
| Australia | 1,086,018 | 164,161,981 |
| Sweden | 1,892,586 | 151,480,442 |
| Belgium | 2,088,448 | 141,851,419 |
| Norway | 718,823 | 89,633,481 |
| Holland | 1,330,275 | 72,738,817 |
| Canada | 213,638 | 60,771,128 |
| Japan | 7,467,452 | 40,887,186 |
| New Zealand | 261,948 | 38,332,823 |
| British India | 866,693 | 34,650,371 |
| Small British Cols. | 354,275 | 32,939,217 |
| Finland | 226,894 | 21,144,278 |
| Roumania | 145,507 | 7,426,031 |
| Grand Total | 82,639,841 | \$10,669,885,102 |

This table does not warrant positive conclusions as to the comparative saving habits of the several nations. Many factors need to be taken into account. In the United States, for example, there is a lack of facilities for saving, especially in the South and Far West. Hence the advocacy of the postal savings banks by many. For a wealthy nation, Americans cannot be considered very thrifty. The standard of living is high, and in addition to many luxuries, the average American wastes a good deal. The French are extremely thrifty, yet the aggregate of their savings does not indicate this. The explanation is that the French invest in national and foreign bonds and even in "industrial" stocks, while other peoples leave such investments to the banks and trust companies.

It is highly desirable to encourage the investment of savings in safe stocks and bonds. It leads to what Judge Grosscup has called the "peopleization of industry," and counteracts the tendencies to monopoly. However, the condition precedent and essential to such "nationalization" of enterprise and corporations is legislation limiting securities to the actual capital invested and preventing inflation, trickery and wildcat speculation. As for govern-

ment bonds, popular loans are advantageous because they do not place the government under obligation to syndicates and powerful moneyed interests.



What the Paragraphers Say

Mrs. Cassie Chadwick could hardly have found it easier to raise money even if she had been a titled foreigner.—*Chicago Record-Herald*.

It is pretty hard to decide, of course, what to do to the tariff, but meantime the tariff keeps right on knowing what to do to us.—*The Indianapolis News*.

David B. Hill is about the most successful political prophet in the country. Long before election day he said he would retire on January 1, 1905.—*The Commoner, Lincoln, Neb.*

"If our combination is illegal," said the capitalist, "I suppose we will have to change it."

"Wouldn't it be easier to change the law?" asked his associate.—*Chicago Evening Post*.

It will take a session of The Hague conference to determine whether or not a British fishing boat is a Japanese torpedo vessel.—*Kansas City Journal*.

A man doesn't have to be a millionaire in order to become a sinner.—*Chicago News*.

IN THE MODERN STYLE.—Two well-known men about town were discussing a new club-house which had recently been built at great cost. One of the men had just been inspecting the new building.

"What style did you say it was decorated in?" asked the other.

The man who had seen the interior reflected a moment. "I think it was either Late Pullman or Early North German Lloyd," he replied.—*Harper's Weekly*.

HIS PATIENCE EXHAUSTED

9 P. M.

Voice from above: "Pa, what are you doing?"

"Reading the President's message."

11 P. M.

Voice from above: "Pa, what are you doing down there?"

"Reading the President's message."

1 A. M.

Voice from above: "Pa!"

"Yes."

"What are you doing?"

"Reading the President's message."

3 A. M.

Voice from above: "Pa, are you down there yet?"

"Yes. Don't bother me."

"What are you doing?"

"I've been reading the President's message, but, confound it, there's no use trying to keep track of public affairs in this house, where a fellow has to be interrupted every few pages. Blamed if I'm going to read the thing at all now!"

Having thus given vent to his feelings, he hid the historical romance which he had been reading and went to bed.—*S. E. Kiser in Chicago Record-Herald*.



England and the Industrial Revolution

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

IN the earlier articles of this series we have taken a general survey of social progress in the western countries of continental Europe during the first half of the nineteenth century. It is now desirable to return to our original point of departure and trace the parallel advance made by the people of England in this same interesting epoch. Thus far we have had little or nothing to say of England, not because social advancement of the profoundest character was not all the time being made in that nation, but because this advancement was of a distinctly original type and for the most part quite independent of contemporary movements on the continent. It is perfectly obvious that social developments among the modern French, Germans, Spaniards, Italians, and even Austrians, must be treated as closely interrelated. It has already been shown how at several successive times the impulse of revolution went forth from France to shake to their foundations the social structures among all of these western peoples, and how the emancipation of the masses in Germany, Austria, and Spain followed very closely the methods and results of the corresponding move-

ment in France. Naturally there were variations, progress being here more rapid, there more slow; here more violent, there more deliberative. But the uniformity of the general movement is far more striking than its diversities. England alone of west European nations worked out her deliverance from aristocratic domination and archaic institutions by a method peculiarly her own and also at a rate of speed affected but little by any sort of external influences. That she should do this was due in part to her insular position and traditional independence from the affairs of the continent, and partly to the innate conservatism of her people which forbade the haste and violence so characteristic of reform uprisings across the Channel. As we shall see, the social advancement of the English in the earlier nineteenth century was not wholly uninfluenced by the affairs of foreign countries, particularly France, but the fact remains that the making of modern English society in all its most essential features must have gone on much the same quite irrespective of contemporary experiments and revolutions in France and elsewhere. The story of

This is the fifth of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

| | |
|--|---|
| Some Features of the Old Régime (September). | England During the Victorian Era (February). |
| The Afterglow of the Revolution (October). | Recent Social Movements in the Romance Countries (March). |
| Reaction and the Republican Revival (November). | Germany and the Progress of Socialism (April). |
| Era of Social Experiment (December). | Social and Industrial Russia (May). |
| England and the Industrial Revolution (January). | |

social progress among the English is probably as complete in itself as such things can ever well be.

In France, and on the continent in general, we found it necessary to begin our study of nineteenth century development by considering the transition from an old to a new social order wrought by the upheaval known as the French Revolution. In England it is likewise necessary to begin with an account of a social transition which gave the century its start under conditions very unlike those existing at an earlier period. But in the latter case the change was a characteristically English one—slow, unplanned, and generally quite devoid of violence and bloodshed. It is commonly spoken of as a "revolution," and such it was so far as the transforming of social conditions was concerned; but the "Industrial Revolution" of England was very far from following the course which revolutions are generally supposed to follow. It was hardly more of a revolution in the ordinarily accepted sense than was the enormous development of urban population as compared with rural population in our own country during the last quarter of a century. And yet its effects, both immediate and remote, were incalculable. So far-reaching were they that for decades they seemed to have overshot the mark and to be fraught with greater harm than good to the people of England, and for fifty years they were directly responsible for a very large share of the social discontent in the country. Even today there are numerous consequences of the Industrial Revolution to which the people are by no means adjusted, and, as will appear in a subsequent chapter, not a few weighty issues in present-day English politics owe their origin to conditions brought about by this same so-called revolution.

In order to appreciate the nature and extent of this profound reshaping of English industry and social conditions it is necessary to view briefly the state of so-

ciety during the latter part of the eighteenth century, and then to consider at somewhat more length the facts of the industrial transition itself.

The reigns of Queen Anne and the first two Georges, while in many respects hardly glorious for England from the standpoint of either internal politics or foreign relations, were marked by general prosperity among the working population of the realm. In 1689 a bounty had been placed on exports and thereafter the raising of grain grew steadily more profitable. Farming was the standard occupation of the laboring classes—sometimes on the great estates of the nobility and other landed proprietors, sometimes by the peasants on their own little holdings. There were as yet but few cities and these were small. English manufactures had already become extensive, but they were not confined practically to the urban population as they are today. Through processes too complex to be detailed here the old craft guilds in the towns, many of which had been in existence from medieval times, had become so exclusive in their membership as to make it impossible for large manufacturing populations to grow up in the towns. These guilds enjoyed absolute industrial monopolies, and, while unable themselves to meet the increased demand for English goods, they foolishly tried to keep up prices by preventing the production of their class of commodities by men outside of the guild. Their charters enabled them as a rule to do this within the corporations of the towns; but in the country districts they had no authority, and the natural result was that many kinds of work which we instinctively associate with the city came to be done very extensively by the rural population beyond the reach of the guild restrictions. Thousands of people were at the same time farmers and manufacturers. Taking the woolen industry as an example, one would find carding, spinning, weaving, and dyeing all being done in the humblest peasant cottages—not

generally by the same person or even the same family, however, but after the principle of the division of labor. Woolen cloth thus made commanded a ready sale at a good price and the peasants who would have found it difficult enough to eke out an existence by depending on their little plots of ground alone were thus aided very materially in the making of a comfortable living. Bad weather and the winter seasons could be utilized in profitable labor, and the women and children could help support the family by working at industries generally neither unhealthy nor unpleasant. The ease with which this could be done will be apparent when one considers that until the century was well advanced the implements used in the woolen manufacture were of a very primitive type. They were inexpensive, simple, easily worked, and not likely to get out of repair. Patience rather than skill was the quality most required for their operation.

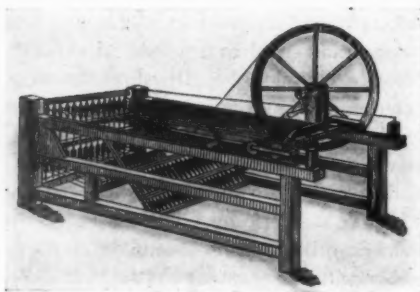
Students of eighteenth century England are struck by the fact that it was only in this late era that industry and commerce began to be at all regarded as bases for political promotion and social distinction. For centuries the holding of land had been the one really certain means of acquiring a true aristocratic place in society, and in England, as in early Rome, a man's position in the social scale was determined as much as anything else by the amount of real estate which he possessed. No matter how wealthy a merchant or a manufacturer might become he was held to be distinctly inferior to the large landed proprietor. Only by putting his money in land could he hope to be recognized by the proprietary class as in any way on their level, and even then this recognition was likely to come only to his children or grandchildren who were somewhat removed from the stigma of being mere traders or artisans. With the enormous expansion of English industry from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century this artificial basis of society was severely

tested—so severely that already by the end of the reign of Queen Anne it was showing strong signs of giving way. Defoe announced the startling fact that trade was not inconsistent with the estate of a gentleman but rather might be the making of him, and Dean Swift declared that the social prestige which had once belonged to land-holding alone was fast being transferred to any sort of successful money-making. By sheer force of achievement and influence the capitalist and manufacturing classes forced themselves upon the level of the landholders and eventually tended to crowd them out. The day was coming when the rich mill-owner or iron-master would be quite as important as a great landlord.

The period of which we are speaking was the closing era of the so-called "domestic" system of manufacturing. While the capitalist class was growing, there were as yet few really considerable aggregations of capital, if judged by present day standards. Many of the guilds had been very wealthy, but because of their exclusiveness and failure to adjust themselves to new conditions they were fast deteriorating and were in no wise destined to control the great industrial future of the country. The independent capitalists with whom this future rested were still as a rule only small master-manufacturers who gave out pieces of work to be done by their employees in their own homes. As we have seen, these employees were generally small farmers, and it was not at all unusual for the master-manufacturer also to combine agriculture with industrial pursuits. In a few cases we hear of a considerable number of workmen being brought together to labor under one roof—the germs of the modern factory; but this plan did not come generally to prevail until the Industrial Revolution, with its extensive introduction of machinery, was well under way.

Defoe, in his "Tour Through Great Britain," written in the first half of the eighteenth century, gives an interesting

account of domestic manufacturing as he saw it in the region near Halifax in Yorkshire. "The land," he says, "was divided into small enclosures from two acres to six or seven each, seldom more, every three or four pieces of land having a house belonging to them; hardly a house



HARGREAVES' SPINNING JENNY

standing out of speaking distance with another. At every considerable house there was a manufactory. Every clothier keeps one horse at least to carry his manufactures to the market; and every one generally keeps a cow or two or more for his family. By this means the small pieces of enclosed land about each house are occupied, for they scarce sow corn enough to feed their poultry. The houses are full of lusty fellows, some at dye-vat, some at the looms, others dressing the cloths, the women and children carding or spinning; being all employed, from the youngest to the oldest." This system had its evils, but it must be at once apparent that it had some decided advantages over the factory system as we see it today. Gibbins, in his "Industrial History of England," has very well stated these as follows: "They (the laborers) still lived more or less in the country and were not crowded together in stifling alleys and courts, or long rows of bare smoke-begrimed streets in houses like so many dirty rabbit-hutches. Even if the artisan did live in a town at that time, the town was very different from the abodes of smoke and dirt which now prevail in the manufacturing districts. There were no tall chimneys, belching

forth clouds of evil smoke, no huge, hot factories with their hundreds of windows blazing forth a lurid light in the darkness, and rattling with the whirr and din of ceaseless machinery by day and night. There were no gigantic blast furnaces rising amid blackened heaps of cinders, or chemical works poisoning the fields and trees for miles around. These were yet to come. The factory and the furnace were almost unknown. Work was carried on by the artisan in his little stone or brick house, with the workshop inside, where the wool for the weft was carded and spun by his wife and daughters, and the cloth was woven by himself and his sons. He had also, in nearly all cases, his plot of land near the house, which provided him both with food and recreation, for he could relieve the monotony of weaving by cultivating his little patch of ground, or feeding his pigs and poultry."

All in all, judged by eighteenth century standards the conditions of the laboring classes under the domestic system of manufacturing were far from bad. Work was rather more regular than it is apt to be at present. The market for home-spun fabrics was far more uniform than that for factory made goods today. Wages were lower than in our time but rent and prices of food were not more than half as high. "Not only has grain become somewhat cheaper," says Adam Smith, in his "Wealth of Nations," "but many other things from which the industrious poor derive an agreeable and wholesome variety of food have become a great deal cheaper." When, in 1763, the Seven Years' War came to an end more than a hundred thousand soldiers were thrown upon the country to find employment and sustenance, yet, as Adam Smith further testifies, social conditions were so favorable that, "not only no great convulsion but no sensible disorder arose."

Even the purely agricultural laborers, usually the worst off of all classes, were enjoying a good degree of prosperity. Arthur Young, whose writings on social

conditions in eighteenth century France have already been referred to, tells us that among English workingmen in both town and country, wheat bread had entirely displaced rye bread, that the consumption of meat and cheese was greater than ever before, and that every poor family now drank tea, which had formerly been a costly luxury. "Indeed," he says, "the laborers, by their large wages and the cheapness of all necessities enjoyed better dwellings, diet and apparel in England than the husbandmen or farmers did in other countries." The contrast with contemporary conditions in France was especially striking.

It is quite essential that these things be borne in mind when we come to consider the Industrial Revolution. That great movement which so completely reconstructed the industrial and even the political life of England was utterly unlike the Revolution in France, not only in its methods, but equally by the fact that it came in response to no recognized needs or definite desires of the lower social classes. It was not a sudden uprising—a striking away of the foundations of an old régime and the substituting of a wholly new social structure—but a slow and gradual change in the means and methods of industry, its successive stages being marked, not by decrees or battles or constitutions, but by the invention of machinery, the rise of factories, and the growth of towns. From first to last the process went on for more than a century and several phases of it are still unfinished today. Roughly speaking, it began about the middle of the eighteenth century and achieved its largest results by the middle of the nineteenth. When it commenced England was preëminently an agricultural country. Even her commerce was more important than her manufactures. When it had done its main work, England was even more preëminently a manufacturing country, and agriculture had been relegated to at least third place in importance. Aside from legal and political

institutions, the England that we know today is in a large measure the product of the Industrial Revolution—far more in fact than is modern France the product of the French Revolution.

As has been suggested, the Industrial Revolution consisted of three important elements: (1) the invention of machinery, (2) the rise of factories, and (3) the growth of cities. The last two were caused mainly by the first and so any study of the general movement must begin with some consideration of the mechanical inventions of the later eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

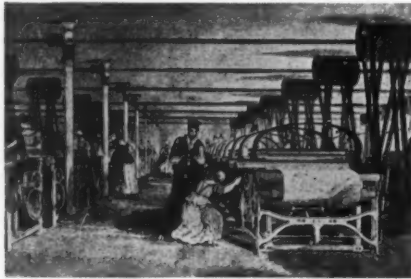
The first such invention which we need note as tending to modify conditions of manufacturing was that of the fly-shuttle by John Kay in 1738. By it one man could operate the loom which had hitherto required two, and at the same time the machine's productive power was doubled. This quadrupling of the efficiency of the weaver soon called for more yarn than the spinners could produce. In 1767 James Hargreaves, a Lancaster weaver, invent-



ARKWRIGHT'S SPINNING MACHINE

ed what was known as the spinning-jenny, which, instead of carrying but a single thread as the old spinning wheels had done, carried at first eight, then sixteen, then twenty, then a hundred and twenty, and even higher numbers. This invention made it possible to supply the weavers with

all the yarn they could use without increasing the number of spinners. In 1771 Richard Arkwright set up a mill at Cromford, in Derbyshire, in which he used his new patent "water-frame"—a spinning machine worked not by hand but by water. This was the first such use of water-power



POWER-LOOM WEAVING IN 1835

on record. In 1779 Samuel Crompton, also a Lancaster man, combined the best features of Hargreaves' and Arkwright's machines in what was commonly known as the "mule-jenny"—a curious mechanism which has been improved until it now carries two thousand spindles and needs so little attention that many machines can be operated by one man. All these inventions gave a wonderful stimulus to the textile industries. Not only was the spinning of silk, wool and flax now made a matter of no difficulty, but the manufacture of cotton, which had hitherto been regarded as on the whole impracticable in England, was put in a fair way of development; and when in 1793 Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, by which the cleaning of cotton fiber was so greatly facilitated, the amount of cotton yarn that could be furnished to weavers was limited only by the production of the new material.

All this, however, was of rather slight consequence unless the same sort of improvements could be made in weaving that had been made in spinning. The best looms in existence were operated by hand ("hand-loom" they were called) and, though improved as we have seen by John Kay, had but insignificant productive

power. The need in this direction was supplied in 1785 by Dr. Cartwright, a clergyman of Kent, in his power-loom to be operated by water. Not much was made of the invention, however, until about 1813, and in the meantime, while spinning had been practically taken out of the hands of the domestic workman and concentrated in mills, hand-loom weaving in the homes of the laborers continued much as before. Dr. Cartwright's loom received numerous improvements and was destined to be the ruin of the last vestiges of domestic manufacture, but it needed a better sort of power than that furnished by water and it was not until the application of steam to this use that progress was made. The first such application was in a factory at Papplewick, in Nottinghamshire, in 1785, the year in fact in which the power-loom was invented, but a decade or more elapsed before the new sort of power was of very decided advantage in the cotton manufacture.

The direct outcome of all these inventions and others which we have not time to mention was the rise of the so-called factory system. The fundamental feature of the factory system is the bringing together of large numbers of workmen in a single establishment where machinery can be set up in a considerable quantity and variety and where steam or water power can be utilized on a large scale. It is thus contrasted at every point with the old domestic system under which the laborers worked in their own homes, using the simplest machinery propelled by hand power.

It is not difficult to see why the invention and improvement of spinning and weaving machines should have been followed by a rapid decline of the domestic system of manufacture and a corresponding development of the modern factory. In the first place, the new machinery was generally expensive. The old hand-loom and spinning wheel had been so simple in construction and so easily obtained that no laborer need be embar-

passed by the cost of the tools of his trade. But this was not at all true of Crompton's mule-jenny or Cartwright's powerloom, even in their most rudimentary forms. In the next place, it was all but impossible to operate the new machinery within the home. It required the application of water-power or, better still, of steam. The former could be had only in certain localities and the latter called for an expensive set of machinery in addition to that used directly in manufacture. If either sort of power was utilized at all it was bound to be sufficient to keep many machines going and hence to employ many workmen. Such an enlargement of productivity within the laborer's home was out of the question. The result was that he gave up home manufacture and became an employee in some centralized establishment. Moreover the introduction of machinery and power made it economical to carry on various branches of the same industry under the same roof. For instance, in the cotton manufacture there was no reason for separating the carders from the spinners or the spinners from the weavers, but the work of all could be done most expeditiously within one another's reach and with a common supply of power. Thus by virtue of no particular premeditation, but simply in response to conditions and needs as they arose, the factory system in England was established.

It is perfectly obvious that such an industrial transformation could not but touch the every-day lives of the people very closely. For the most part men were quite antagonistic to the new system and it must be said that it won its way rather despite of the public will than because of it. From the beginning it was foreseen by many that every machine invented would mean more or less of a derangement of industry and was likely to throw hundreds and thousands out of employment. Although there are some who still hold the contrary opinion, it may be affirmed that in the long run the introduc-

tion of machinery greatly expanded the field of labor and brought about better conditions for the laborer. But naturally this was not apparent in the eighteenth century—at any rate the struggling peasant, dependent upon his home industry to save him from pauperism, could not see it. Therefore we need not be surprised to learn that practically every invention of importance brought down upon the head of the inventor the wrath of the laboring classes. Hargreaves, for example, met with mob violence and was compelled to remove to Nottinghamshire in order to set up his spinning-jenny in safety. In 1779 there was a series of outbreaks in Lancaster in which several machines were destroyed by the angry populace. Similar demonstrations might be cited in many other parts of the country. But the trend toward the new industrial régime was too strong to be stayed by men who had no resource but violence. Gradually the laboring population began to adapt itself to the changed conditions and the progress of England toward the industrial posi-



CARDING, DRAWING AND ROVING IN 1835

tion she now occupies was scarcely retarded, notwithstanding the discontent of perhaps three-fourths of her people.

The most striking feature of this adaptation was a general shifting of population, first, from the southern to the northern counties, and second from the country to the cities. The migration to the north had really begun before the revolution but it was greatly accelerated by that industrial change. It was in the

north that the great mineral resources of England lay and it was this fact that determined the location of most of the new mills and factories. Coal and iron were there abundant, the former providing unlimited possibilities in the way of steam power, the latter insuring the production



MULE-SPINNING IN 1835

of better tools and better machinery. In 1788 England produced 18,000 tons of iron; in 1796, 125,000; in 1806, 250,000—a record in no small degree due to the enormous development of machinery. From all parts of the realm the working people flocked to the cities of Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Lancashire. These cities, notably Leeds, Manchester, and Sheffield, now became the most populous and flourishing, with the exception of London, in all England. Great mills were built in these centers about which people who had abandoned their country homes gathered by hundreds and thousands. Men who with their families had engaged in domestic manufacture in order to supplement the incomes from their little farms found to their dismay that they were able neither to produce goods which would any longer command a market nor to provide themselves with the machinery necessary for the production of such goods. The one resource left to them was to leave their homes and give up their industrial independence to become employees in the new factory towns. It would be a mistake to think of this movement as anything like universal. Here and there domestic industry lived on as indeed

it does today. We even hear of places in which as late as 1840 there were conflicts between the hand-loom weavers and the power-loom weavers. But the broad fact remains that before the nineteenth century was well under way the domestic system had been generally displaced, and the great majority of manufacturing workmen had been compelled to have recourse to the factory.

The social consequences of the Industrial Revolution were soon apparent and they were far from being altogether favorable. With the nineteenth century commenced a great era of industrial consolidation and activity which meant vastly increased wealth and prestige for the employers of labor. For a little time, just when this expansion was at high tide, the laborers were likewise benefited, chiefly by being paid higher wages, but before the new era was far advanced it became apparent that for them there were to be more losses than gains. In the first place, the factory system marked the real beginning of the modern antagonism between capital and labor. Capital now became the most important element in production and labor was cut off from a share in its own products, being now a mere hired dependency with little personal interest in the quality of its services. The interests of capitalist and laborer grew rapidly apart and the attitude of the one toward the other became little less than that of open hostility. Men by the thousands were thrown out of employment. Machines put a discount on muscle and skill. Women and children could frequently do the work which had hitherto required men, and as the former would accept lower wages the employers were not slow in substituting them in their factories. The result, as one writer puts it, was to reverse the relations of the home. "Wives and children became bread-winners, while grown men vainly sought employment or degenerated into contented idleness."

The worst feature of the new system

was the marked physical and moral deterioration of the laboring classes. Methods of living and working became the worst that England had ever known. Whereas the mass of laboring people had heretofore dwelt in their humble but healthful country homes and worked together in family groups, they were now gathered in congested districts around the great mill centers where they frequently lived amid conditions shockingly degrading. Men, women, and children were thrown together in large factories with no moral control, and usually with no arrangements for the preservation of health, comfort and decency. Employees were worked long and hard—as a rule not less than fifteen hours a day and sometimes as many as eighteen. Factory proprietors were generally men of a more or less avaricious and morally indifferent character, whose sole aim was to realize as much as possible from their investments regardless of the welfare of those in their employ.

But bad as the conditions were inside the factories, they were usually worse in the working people's homes. Housing accommodations were hopelessly inadequate. Whole families huddled together in cellars and attics. Even as late as Queen Victoria's time it is said that in Manchester one-tenth of the total population lived in cellars, often reeking with stagnant filth and breeding fevers which kept the physicians of the city taxed to the utmost. The physique of the factory laborers, especially the women, began rapidly to degenerate, and the death rate became appallingly high. It is clearly within the truth to say that the life of the negro slave in the southern United States was easy indeed compared with that of the North England factory laborer in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The negro had at least plenty of fresh air, substantial food, and hours for rest, while the factory workman had none of these. Even the external form of slavery was pretty well duplicated in the terrible traffic in orphan

and pauper children by which the operators kept up the supply of cheap labor for their mills. And whereas the epithet "factory girl" had for a time been regarded as little better than one of insult, dire necessity compelled thousands of girls from families hitherto in comfortable circumstances to enter upon the hazardous life of the mills. When the wages of workingmen were reduced to a starvation level they were compelled to consent to the breaking up of their homes and the employment of their wives and children in factories.

Thus, by reason of the greed and inhumanity of the operators, the unseemly haste with which factories were built and provided with workers, and the throwing of domestic manufacturers out of employment through the competition of machine-made goods, there arose a condition of things, more or less throughout all England, but particularly in the North, that was simply unbearable. In our next study we shall take a survey of the great reform movements by which the worst of these ills were remedied and of the various means by which the English people adjusted themselves to the new industrial system and at the same time achieved for



COTTON FACTORIES IN MANCHESTER

themselves a far larger share than they had ever before enjoyed in the management of their own governmental and social relations.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- I. English methods of social progress.
 - i. Movements generally independent of those on the continent.

Social Progress in Europe

II. Nature of the Industrial Revolution in England.

2. Contrast English conservatism with continental radicalism.
1. Not a revolution in ordinary sense.
2. Conditions of society preceding it.
 - a. Earlier dominance of land-holding class.
 - b. Rise in importance of merchant and manufacturer.
 - c. The domestic system of manufacturing.
 - d. The average peasant both a farmer and a manufacturer.
 - e. Benificent features of the domestic system.
 - f. Good conditions prevailing among common people.

III. Three important elements in the Industrial Revolution.

1. Invention of machinery.
 - a. 1738—John Kay's fly-shuttle.
 - b. 1767—Hargreaves' spinning-jenny.
 - c. 1771—Arkwright's water-frame.
 - d. 1779—Crompton's mule-jenny.
 - e. 1785—Cartwright's power-loom.
 - f. 1793—Whitney's Cotton-gin.
2. Rise of the factory system.
 - a. Why machinery did away with domestic system.
 - b. Popular resistance to introduction of machinery.
 - c. Derangement of labor conditions.
3. Growth of towns and cities.
 - a. Shifting of population to cities of Northern England.
 - b. Influx of laborers from country districts.

IV. Social consequences of the Industrial Revolution.

1. Rise of antagonism of capital and labor.
2. Introduction of woman and child labor.
3. Decline in wages.
4. Lowering of standard of living.
5. Evil conditions in factories and homes.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What country was the center of revolutionary movements on the continent? 2. Why was social progress in England so independent of the rest of Europe? 3. How should a study of social progress in England in the nineteenth century begin? 4. In what sense was the "Industrial Revolution" a revolution? 5. What organizations controlled trade and manufacture in England prior to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? How did they do it? 6. Describe the system of domestic manufacture. 7. What were the good features of the domestic system? 8. What were its evils? 9. What was the basis of social distinction in England in the early eighteenth century (aside from birth)? 10. What new basis was appearing by the end of the

eighteenth? 11. What were the three important elements in the Industrial Revolution? 12. What invention is connected with the name of Hargreaves? Arkwright? Cartwright? Whitney? 13. What was the effect of the invention of the power-loom? 14. Why did the invention of machinery lead to the factory system? 15. Why were inventors hated by the English laboring classes? 16. What was the effect of the rise of factories on the distribution of population? 17. Why were the factories built in the North? 18. What was the effect of the Industrial Revolution upon the relations of capital and labor? 19. What was its effect upon the family? 20. Account for the bad condition of life in the early factory towns. 21. Compare the lot of the factory laborers with that of the negro slaves in the United States.

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Why did the Industrial Revolution take place in England before on the continent? 2. What is the significance of the term "farmer" in England? 3. Name two famous poems inspired by the sad condition of the earlier factory workers. 4. What was Adam Smith's great book and when was it published? 5. Who was Defoe? 6. What famous poem illustrates the shifting of England's population to the factory centers?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

For very brief but reliable accounts of the Industrial Revolution the reader may be referred to the following books: Conan and Kendall, "History of England," 466-474; Cherey, "Industrial and Social History of England," Chap. VIII; and Cunningham and McArthur, "Outlines of English Industrial History," Chap. IX. Somewhat fuller accounts will be found in Gibbins, "Industrial History of England," 143-197; Gibbins, "The English People in the Nineteenth Century," Chap. II; Arnold Toynbee, "The Industrial Revolution of the Eighteenth Century in England;" R. W. Cooke-Taylor, "The Modern Factory System;" E. Baines, "History of the Cotton Manufacture in Great Britain;" and Traill, "Social England," Vol. V. Lecky's "History of England in the Eighteenth Century," Vol. VI, Chap. XXIII, is interesting. Bright's "History of England," Vol. III, contains much valuable information on the bearing of various aspects of the Revolution on social and political conditions. Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations" is illuminating reading though it was written when the Revolution was only getting well under way. For the darker side of factory life Gaskell's "Manufacturing Population of England," written in 1833, is worth consulting if accessible. The contrast between the old landed aristocracy and the new industrial magnates in the eighteenth century is brought out admirably in Scott's "Rob Roy," wherein the former class is represented by the old Tory squire who held fast to the church and the king, and the latter class by the commercial leader who supported the new House of Hanover.



Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck

By Wolf von Schierbrand

Author of "Germany: The Welding of a World Power."

AT the northwestern confines of Germany, forming a rather flat triangle, lie Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, cities which jointly and strikingly illustrate, and, in a measure, typify the Germany of old and the Germany of today. Hamburg, though one of the earliest towns in the Teutonic North and five centuries ago wealthy and flourishing, trading with the Levant and the whole Mediterranean shore as well as with the Scandinavian countries and Russia, but above all with England and the Flemish Lowlands, is substantially a modern city, now boasting of a population of 750,000, second in size in the lusty young empire. Kiel, on the other hand, though the seat of a university for centuries past, owes its present growth and importance to the consolidation of Germany into a united political entity thirty-three years since. Lübeck again with its fine medieval architecture, its narrow streets and alleys, lined on either side with tall, narrow, gabled houses of stately patrician antecedents, carries us right into the heart of the romantic Middle Ages, back into a time when its burghers were proud

merchant princes, when this embattled town was lording it in sovereign sway over the whole Baltic, was crowning and uncrowning kings and potentates, and sending out its fleet of steep-prowed *orlog* (war) ships to vanquish the combined naval forces of Sweden and Denmark.

The old and the new, each with charms of its own—here you find them in close array. But to understand the new, to appreciate justly and sympathetically the driving forces of the German Empire of today and the manners and motives that impel its people, it is indeed needful to dive into that past out of which grew by slow stages, often almost imperceptibly, the present.

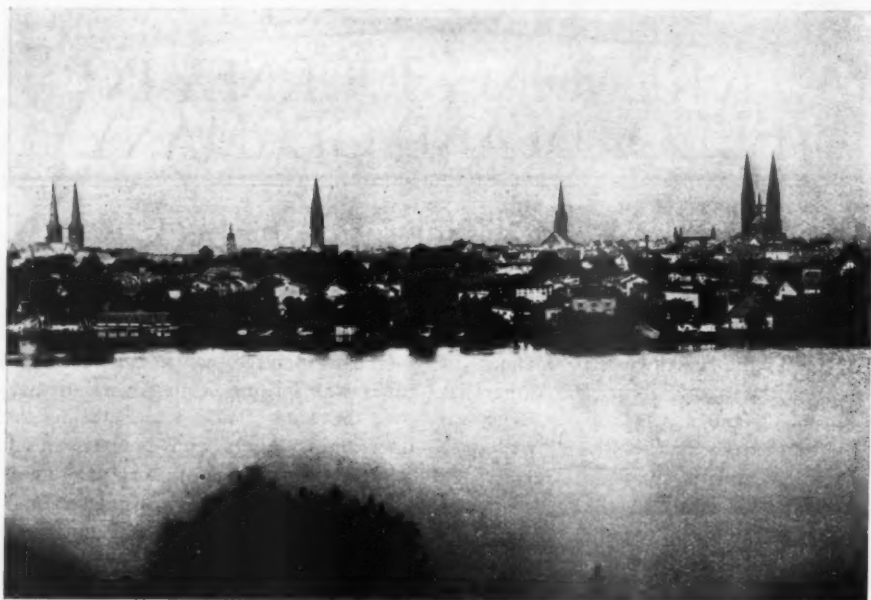
Let us consider the case of Lübeck first.

By the shores of the Trave river, not far from where it empties into the Baltic (at Travemünde, its seaport), Lübeck was founded, in 1143, by Count Adolph II of Holstein, whence, too, the name of the Holstenthor, the picturesque main gate of the city on the land side, the fourteen-foot walls and buttresses of which have scarcely been gnawed by the tooth of time.

This is the fifth of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenried (September).
Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenried (October).
Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).
Munich: The City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (December).

Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).
Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (February).
Weimar, by Prof. Robert W. Deering (March).
What Berlin Offers, by Professor Otto Heller (April).
University Life (May).



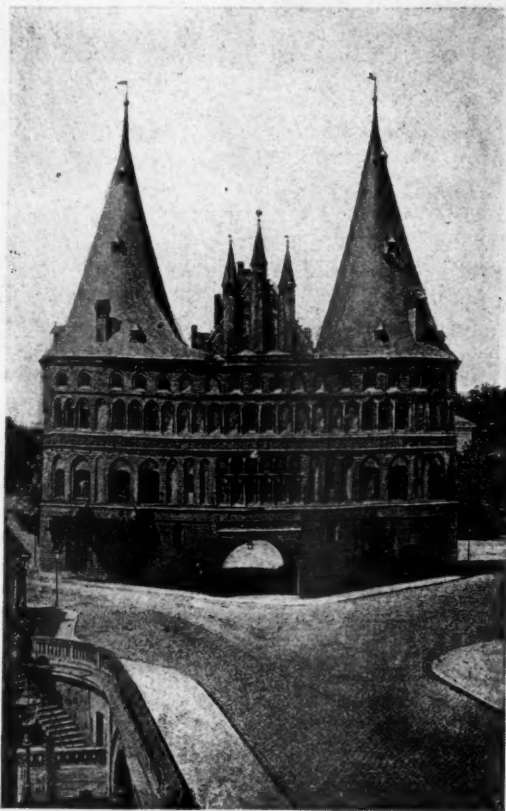
GENERAL VIEW OF LÜBECK

The town grew with marvelous rapidity, for it was a daring, brawny set of men that settled there, men who knew how to brave in their galleons and caravels the murderous squalls of the shallow inland sea and how to protect against the ever-lurking robber-knights their precious wares on the rough highroads. Already in 1226 Lübeck had achieved its independence, had become a Reichsstadt, *i. e.*, a municipal commonwealth owing allegiance to none but the Imperial Crown. And but fifteen years later, in 1241, Lübeck took the lead in forming that remarkable confederacy of cities known to history as the Hansa. Its ally at first was Hamburg, but so rapidly spread the power of the Hansa that within a score of years the Hansa comprised eighty-five leading towns of the old empire, with Lübeck at the head of them all, and Cologne, Brunswick and Dantzic as the presiding Quartierstadt, or district center, of the other main regions. In 1364 the Hansa was firmly organized at a great meeting held in Cologne, and its joint purposes clearly defined in a constitution which, though the terrible Thirty Years' War (1618-1648), a war which reduced Germany's population from twenty-five to four millions and destroyed her wealth for centuries, broke also the real power of the Hansa, weathered the storms of many generations and survived even the old empire itself. The name Hansa is of Flemish origin, however, and it was Bruges, Ghent and Antwerp which in their earlier federation had served as first models to the German Städtebund.

The Hansa, then, during its centuries of growth and power, had as its main purpose extension and protection of industry and commerce, both within the empire and abroad (and fortress-like branch establishments, guarded by men-at-arms, existed for hundreds of years in London, Bruges, Bergen, and Novgorod); strict maintenance of justice and commercial usages within the towns forming part of the Hansa; and the preservation and enlargement of civic rights and liberties. It was the protagonist of

municipal freedom during the Middle Ages, and hence the foe of feudalism. The zenith of its glory was reached during the fourteenth century, when it greatly overtopped that of the emperor himself as well as the rulers of the northern countries. The Kings of Norway, Denmark and Sweden for a long time paid tribute to the Hansa, and its pennant waved triumphant in both the Baltic and North Sea, nay, even in the far-away White Sea. It cleansed the ocean of piracy, and completely wiped out of existence the strong piratical confederacy known as the Brethren of Vitalis (Vitalienbrüder), 670 of whom, after a victorious naval engagement near the south shore of Sweden, the admiral of the Hansa fleet hanged higher than Haman on the yardarms of his vessels. Again and again the Hansa scoured the northern waters, from Riga and Reval (members of the Hansa) on the east, to Antwerp and Dunkerque on the west, and on land they built dykes, canals, and better highroads, and successfully withstood the haughty and lawless knights and barons of the soil, enabling the German cities of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to focus the continental trade of Europe and make of some of them, like Augsburg and Nuremberg, the equals in wealth, refinement and progress of Venice and Bruges. The discovery of America and internal German events changed this, however, and Lübeck, at one time a city surpassing by far London in population and luxury, Lübeck, which alone had raised war fleets of 400 vessels and armies of 35,000, went down. Her glory departed, like that of Venice some time later. The last effort to regain her lost ascendancy was made during the time of Luther's Refor-

mation. Lübeck's burgomaster at that critical period was Jürgen Wullenweber, one of the most interesting figures in the history of municipal development, a man of heroic mould and the undaunted champion of democratic government. Under his lead Lübeck once more rose to great power and affluence, but the Emperor



HOLSTENTHOR, LÜBECK

Charles V, a grim foe alike to Protestantism and to civic liberty, drowned Wullenweber's great work in blood.

Since then history has trodden other paths. A luxurious town Lübeck remained and is to this day; but for centuries it was the somnolence that comes after a good dinner. The commerce of the world had shifted and drifted, and the Atlantic became the highway,



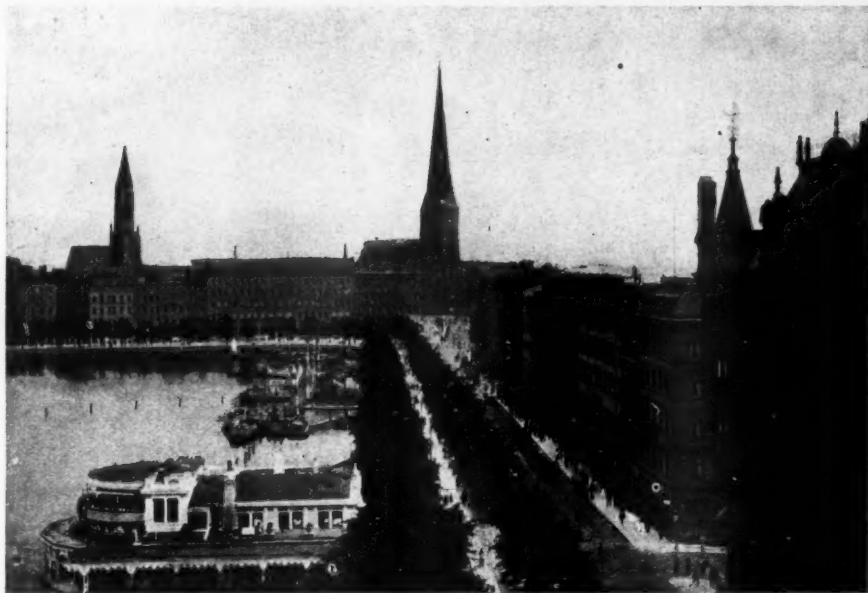
VIEW FROM THE TRAVE RIVER, LÜBECK

with the Briton as the main navigator.

Lübeck still dreams of the great past. Its Rathaus (city hall), a gem of Gothic architecture; its magnificent cathedral, its picturesque old market place, its well-preserved patrician palaces with their curious carvings in stone, their fretted wrought-iron balustrades and balconies (termed *Erker*), their oriel windows of high artistic value, and their splendidly carved wainscotings, sideboards, treasury chests (termed *Tresur*), tables and chairs of core oak or ash, their beautifully chased and hammered goblets, trays and dishes of silver and gold, works of Dürer, Sebastian Brandt, and other masters, and their early oil paintings on canvas and wood by Lucas Cranach, Memling, and of the Rhenish and Flemish schools, are still the delight of the connoisseur. Those who feel and appreciate the quiet, musty charm of Nuremberg will doubly feel and appreciate that of Lübeck. For Lübeck, like a dainty insect in amber, has been preserved almost intact.

To be sure, of late a breath of fresh air from the outside has begun to stir the medieval slumber of this half-forgotten city. The young empire has been no stepmother to her. The harbor has been improved; the Trave has been regulated; Lübeck's sea harbor, Travemünde, has been given modern docks, and part of the Baltic shipping has found its way back to the old roadstead. And Lübeck, for all it is still the *Vorort* (head place) of the Hansa (the other two members being Hamburg and Bremen) and still an aristocratic republic governed by "consuls" and municipal delegates, has begun to "find itself" once more, and new blood begins to pulse in its sluggish veins.

A few hours by rail and one arrives at Hamburg, bustling, crowded, eager Hamburg, the great emporium of the European continent, next to London the greatest seaport, a city typical of the young empire and its reawakened energies and ambitions. Hamburg lies on the Elbe, a broad and stately river here, but



ALSTER BASIN AND ALSTER PAVILLON, HAMBURG

her outer harbor, Cuxhaven (where the Elbe mingles its dun waves with those of the emerald North Sea), is a score of miles off, and the big trans-Atlantic steamers and many other craft prefer to unload their passengers and cargoes there.

It was more than eleven hundred years ago, during the reign of Charlemagne, that Hamburg was founded, both as a nucleus of Christianity among the pagan and stiff-necked Saxons and Frisians inhabiting the lowlands north and south of the Elbe, and as a fastness against the savage Danes and Normans and their continual inroads on their Viking vessels. Hamburg was made a bishopric and a center for the missionizing of the whole North. For about three hundred years the new city prospered none too well, but after Hamburg had become a free and independent town—or rather a municipal republic, like Lübeck—and had joined the Hansa in a defensive and offensive alliance, it grew in size and wealth. Nevertheless, Hamburg all through the Middle Ages never equalled Lübeck in either respect, and while her shipping

gravitated toward the coast of the North Sea—the British Isles, France and Flanders—she never enjoyed such a hegemony in trade and politics as did Lübeck. Hamburg skippers, though, gradually extended their sphere wider and wider, risked their skins along the Barbary coasts and went as far as Greece and Constantinople, even to the dreaded Euxine—the modern Black Sea. Later on Hamburg vessels, carrying the pretty Hamburg flag—the three white towers in a scarlet field—convoyed precious-freighted ships and had many a hard-fought battle with pirates sailing under the crescent or the skull and cross-bones. Nor did the discovery of America quite lame their enterprise. They clung to their old trade routes.

Prosperous enough, though nothing to compare with today, the centuries went past, and Napoleon I, with his anti-British naval policy hove in sight. It was during the years 1800-1813 that Hamburg's shipping was destroyed, and when the Corsican conqueror at last sailed for St. Helena the great port had dwindled to a



FREIHAFEN, PART OF THE HARBOR EXEMPT FROM CUSTOMS DUTIES, HAMBURG



HANSA HARBOR, HAMBURG



THE BOURSE, HAMBURG



SCHAUSPIELHAUS—MUNICIPAL THEATER, HAMBURG



LANDTHOR, QUAY AND WAREHOUSE, HAMBURG

mere shadow of its former self. Slowly a revival took place, but it is only since 1850, since German traffic with the United States began to assume larger proportions, that dates the steadily increasing importance of Hamburg. More particularly, though, it is since the reestablishment of the united German Empire, 1871, that Hamburg has advanced at enormous strides. In this respect the city has been a faithful reflex of Germany's own growth during the last three decades.

Up to 1872 Hamburg was more an English than a German harbor. In that year 5,913 vessels (with a total capacity of 2,100,000 register tons) put into that harbor. Of these the English vessels showed 1,100,000 tons, the German vessels but 658,000 tons. Fifteen years later, in 1887, the German vessels exceeded the British both in number and tonnage—3,674 German vessels, of 1,734,271 tons, against 2,509 British, of 1,696,181 tons—

and by 1900 the figures had shifted thus: Of the 13,102 vessels that year in the port of Hamburg, having a joint capacity of over 8,000,000 tons, there were 7,640 German ships with 4,300,000 tons, and but 3,442 British with 2,800,000 tons. Nearly half of these British vessels were colliers. As in number, the German vessels have also increased in size. In 1872 they averaged about half the size of the British; today they are fifty per cent larger than the latter. The British middleman has been eliminated for Hamburg. The direct trans-Atlantic trade of Hamburg grew by mighty bounds. Even since 1900 the rate of increase has been more than maintained, despite the severe financial depression in Germany since. Hamburg's trans-Atlantic trade between 1900 and 1902 shows a growth by 279,000 tons, while that with British ports was 210,000 tons. In both respects she beat England. Still, of the arrivals in

Hamburg during 1901 those with trans-Atlantic freights on board numbered but 1,612, with a tonnage of 3,600,000, while those from European ports totaled 11,235, their tonnage being 4,800,000.

We see, therefore, that Hamburg's commerce grew within the twenty-eight years, from 1872-1900, almost fourfold, viz., from 2,100,000 to over 8,000,000 tons.

The growth of Germany as a seafaring, industrial and commercial nation has been on a parallel. Without going back too far it will only be necessary to give a few test figures to prove that.

In 1870 Germany was mainly an agricultural country, and her foreign commerce was relatively unimportant. Her industries were undeveloped. From this, within thirty years, she became England's chief rival. Between 1850 and 1900, one single decade, her imports and exports rose from \$1,800,000,000 to \$2,650,000,000, an increase of 50 per cent. Since 1870 her population rose fifty per cent, to, roundly, sixty millions.

In capital German growth has been even more astonishing. In 1870 Germany had, practically, no foreign investments at all. In 1900 they amounted to \$5,200,000,000, as against \$10,000,000,000 of British foreign investments, or slightly over one-half of the latter.

The rise and growth of a typical German financial institution, the Deutsche Bank, in Berlin, may serve as a faithful barometer. This bank was started, in 1870, with a capital of \$3,750,000. In 1901 its capital had increased to \$50,000,000 (or fourteenfold), the volume of its business to almost \$13,000,000,000, and its dividends to eleven per cent.

The volume of Germany's foreign trade is even today somewhat larger than is that of this country, despite our own remarkably fast growth, namely (1904) \$2,650,000,000, as against \$2,417,000,000 for the United States.

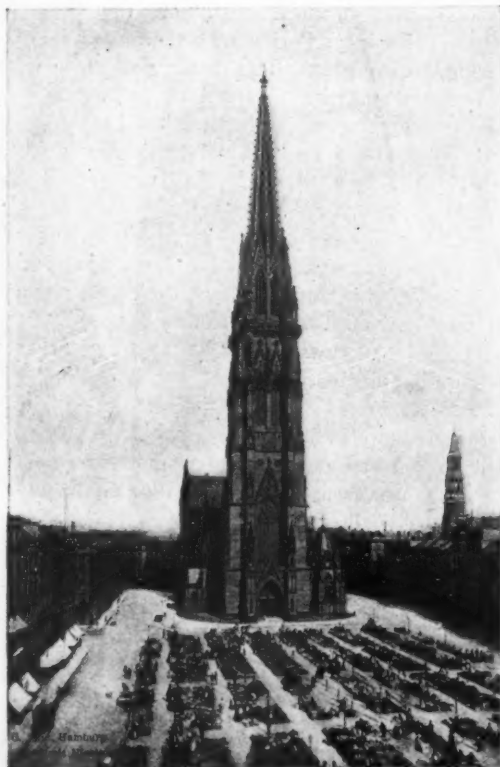
As for Germany's direct trade with us, in 1882 she bought of us but \$28,000,000 worth, and in 1900 the amount she bought was \$250,000,000. In 1892 Germany ex-



HARBOR NEAR CUSTOM HOUSE, HAMBURG

ported to the United States goods worth \$85,790,000, and in 1903, \$121,790,000, almost altogether industrial products, the most valuable exports of all.

These facts and figures will seem surprising to many, for it is only of late that Germany has forged ahead so enormously.



NICOLAI KIRCHE, 485 FEET HIGH, HAMBURG

But the methods by which she has accomplished, and is still accomplishing, such miracles are simple and easily understood. In illustration it may be well to revert again to Hamburg.

Hamburg has left behind in the total amount of its shipping interests every other city on the globe with the single exception of London. But Hamburg has done, too, everything which enterprise and wise foresight could do to bring this about. Hamburg has spent more money than

any other two harbors in the world together during the last score of years to perfect her technical facilities. Her system of quays and docks and warehouses is the best in existence, and the \$56,000,000 laid out on these improvements by her municipal authorities and her ship-

owners are bringing rich fruit. All these improvements are made of durable material—stone and iron and steel—and are equipped with hydraulic machinery, with cranes, derricks and other hoisting apparatus, that are equal to any emergency. In fact, today hydraulic engineers the world over go to Hamburg to study these triumphs of professional skill, as they formerly used to go to London and Liverpool. The water front of Hamburg, with its miles of model docks and quays, is a modern marvel of practical genius, and may stand for a fitting and eloquent type of material progress in Germany. American engineers are particularly struck with the fact on their first visit to Hamburg. And another point: From these harbor improvements Hamburg is drawing a steady and ever-increasing revenue, a revenue equal to a very fine rate of interest on the capital invested.

What has been said here is equally true, though not in the same measure, of the

other German harbors, such as Bremen, Stettin Dantzic, etc., and at the close of 1901 Germany had 4,017 sea-going vessels afloat, being surpassed only by England.

Her crews, nearly all natives of her Waterkant (*i. e.*, Baltic or North Sea coast) number in excess of 50,000. Her 1,293 steamers are nearly all steel-built. Even of her sailing vessels 158 are leviathans of 2,000 tons and over. Germany's river and inland merchant marine is also

quite large, namely 22,564 vessels, with a total tonnage of 3,370,447, which is not much smaller than our own lake fleet.

The twin city of Hamburg, Altona (itself boasting a population of a quarter of a million), is the headquarters of one of Germany's twenty-three army corps, the ninth, and affords a good opportunity of studying that formidable fighting machine, the German army. When Napoleon I, a century ago, overran and subdued Germany, her territory was split into several hundred sovereign states, varying in size between a few square miles and good-sized domains. The map of Germany at that time looked like the motley jerkin of a harlequin. Today the armed forces of the empire, both by land and sea, are under the chief command of the emperor, are homogeneous,



NEW CITY HALL, HAMBURG



A BIT OF OLD HAMBURG: THE FLEETH

drilled and disciplined according to one system. The peace footing of the army shows altogether 605,975 men, officers and rank and file, divided into 216 regiments of infantry with about 100,000 artillery, and some 70,000 cavalry, and altogether 105,642 horses. On a war footing the army numbers, roughly, 3,000,000, including the men in active service, the reservists, the Landwehr, and the Landsturm, the latter from 35 to 45 years old and only to be used (according to the constitution of the empire) for home defense, not in foreign parts, thus leaving about 2,200,000 men for offensive purposes. Many changes in equipment, arms, and tactics have been made in the German army since the end of the war with France, in 1871; the peace



FRIEDRICHSRUH, PRINCE BISMARCK'S HOME

footing little by little has been doubled, keeping step with France in this respect. This is, no doubt, a heavy burden in every sense for the German people, but the fact that Germany's population today outnumbers that of France by, roundly, twenty millions, shows that her own burden is not as enormous as that of her western neighbor. As a matter of fact, it costs Germany not much more in taxes to maintain her army of 605,975 than it costs to maintain the 65,000 of the United States army.

Before leaving Hamburg it is worth while making a short trip to Friedrichsruh, Bismarck's extensive estate, but forty minutes by rail. The rather unassuming château of Friedrichsruh is but a few minutes' walk from the little railroad station, at the edge of the big Sachsenwald, an immense forest of beeches and oak and the chief source of revenue of its owner—now the seven-year-old heir of the late Prince Herbert Bismarck. The mausoleum, containing all that was mortal of the great statesman, is near the château and, like the latter, accessible to tourists.

Many interesting mementoes of Bismarck are left intact in the château, and his study, death chamber, and principal living room have been left undisturbed.

In another direction, but also reached by a short journey by rail, is Kiel, now Germany's main naval bulwark, facing the Baltic, with a very fine and safe harbor, and surrounded by landscape of a peculiar, idyllic beauty, full of placid lakes and stately beech groves. Ploen, with one of the Kaiser's castles and a military academy where all of his sons have received their early training, is close by, and it is likewise the main headquarters of Prince Henry, the Kaiser's brother and the resident admiral.

When Kiel was annexed to Prussia, after the last war with Denmark, in 1865, it was a sleepy little town with hardly any industry, commerce or shipping. Its university was the one redeeming feature. Under German hands, within forty years, Kiel has grown into a city of 200,000, and is highly flourishing. It is the chief naval port. The imperial navy yards are located here; so are the big Germania shipyards

owned by Krupp; the Admiralty building; the Marine Academy; immense warehouses and docks, and a large number of prosperous factories, etc. The greatest impetus to Kiel's growth, however, has been given by the completion of the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, called for short the Baltic Canal, which has its eastern mouth near Kiel and its western on the lower Elbe, not far from Hamburg. This waterway was planned soon after Kiel had become German, and it was finished in 1895. The commerce of Kiel has quintupled within those ten years, and its population more than doubled. The canal joins the Baltic with the North Sea, thus shortening the way by hundreds of miles and doing away with the dangerous and crooked route around the Skager Rack and through the Danish archipelago. Primarily this work was undertaken for strategic reasons, for the canal virtually doubles Germany's navy, performing for her what the Panama Canal will do for us within a few years.

Indeed, it is not too much to say that it is only due to this canal (which enables Germany, within thirty-six hours, to concentrate her navy at will, either in the Baltic or North Sea, and which, moreover, affords at all times a safe shelter or retreat for her marine forces) that Germany now ranks with the first-class naval powers. In number of vessels and in their fighting strength she is today still out-ranked by England, France, and Russia. But her navy is larger than that of the United States, with a much less extensive coast to defend, and she has left Italy, Austria and others far in the rear. Under her present naval increase law her navy grows at the rate of about 40,000 tons per annum. The latest authentic figures show Germany to have 41 battleships, of which 12 are for coast defense and 29 form her battle fleet (7 of these now completing); 23 protected cruisers (but none larger than 6,500 tons, she believing in speedy and "handy" vessels for this type); 154 torpedo boats and de-

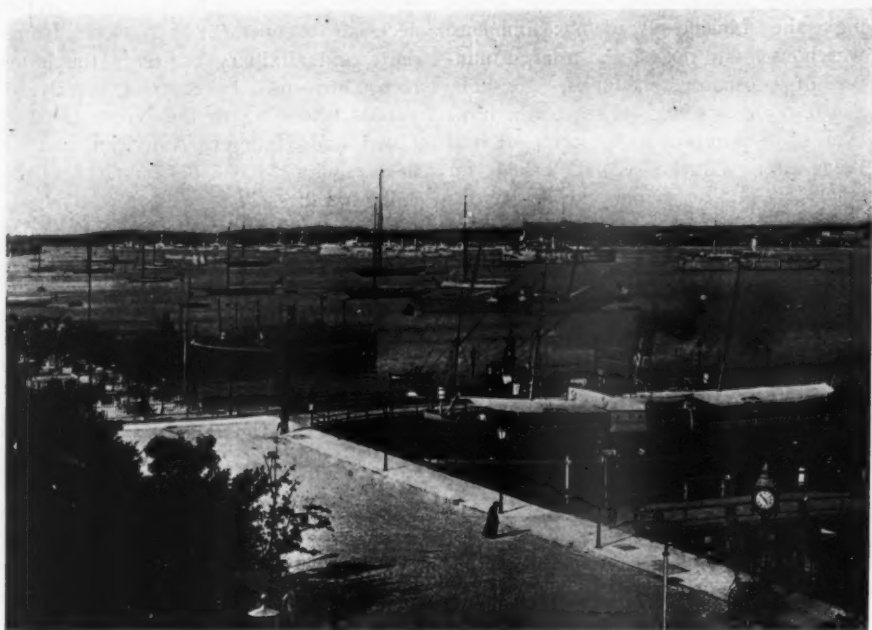
stroyers, and 6 submarine boats, with the necessary complement of gunboats, transports and auxiliary cruisers (the latter being furnished, by contract, mostly by vessels belonging to the North German Lloyd and Hamburg-American steamer fleets), with a naval personnel of 33,500 and a naval reserve of 110,000. By 1916, under the terms of the aforementioned law, the offensive part of the German navy is to number 34 battleships, 11 large and 34 small cruisers, with 4 more large battleships and 7 cruisers as a reserve. Her navy will then be considerably larger than the French navy is today.

How much the skippers of the Baltic and North Sea appreciate this Baltic Canal is best shown by the figures. The tonnage which, in 1903, passed through the Suez Canal (after nearly forty years'



PRINCE HENRY
Resident Admiral at Kiel.

use) was 9,700,000, tolls there being proverbially high. This defect the Baltic Canal is not guilty of. Five years after the dedication of the Baltic Canal, 29,571 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of



VIEW OF HARBOR, KIEL

4,282,258, passed through it. The yearly increase of this tonnage is about 25 to 30 per cent, and in 1903 it amounted to nearly 6,000,000 tons.

Aside from its naval features (which indeed are best studied here) Kiel offers not a great deal that will attract the sight-seer. The Düsternbrook is well worth a visit, though, and it is not difficult to gain admittance to the Imperial Navy Yard (Kaiserliche Marinewerft), where a number of vessels, from the bluntnosed torpedo and the graceful gunboat to the most massive thunderer are always in process of construction. Of the 10,000 to 12,000 men employed about this immense yard (fenced in on all sides) the majority are known to be socialists—a fact which at first seems rather odd, until one learns that the greater number of German sailors, navvies and shipbuilders are of that creed everywhere, and that they, indeed, are the most intelligent and efficient toilers.

Hamburg, it must be confessed, is far

more attractive in a general way. An enormous conflagration destroyed, in 1842, a great portion of the oldest section of the city, including many of the Fleeths (by which name are known the narrow, ancient lanes lined on both sides with tall warehouses and intersected by canals), but enough of these quaint and picturesque though rather unhygienic portions of Hamburg remain to satisfy those with a taste for it. As a whole, however, Hamburg is now one of the most beautiful and wealthiest cities in the world. The basin of the Alster river (a tributary of the Elbe), located in the very heart of the town and surrounded by broad, park-like avenues and residence streets, is a unique feature. The new city hall of Hamburg (which was dedicated, with gorgeous ceremonies and lavish hospitality, in the presence of the Kaiser, a couple of years ago) shows in its pure Gothic Renaissance style and its interior and exterior decorations that the union of the old and new is feasible for an able architect. Pro-

portionately there is far more wealth in Hamburg than in Berlin, and the life of the merchant classes in the former city is almost sybaritic; at least so it is popularly accounted through Germany, and the Hamburg cuisine is held the best in the Fatherland. In many ways Hamburg even today is more English than German. This is especially true of her mode and methods of doing business, for even her business hours are those of London, and her style of living. Nowhere else in Germany is so much solid, genuine comfort to be found.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How do Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck illustrate the old and the new in Germany? 2. Describe the beginnings of Lübeck in history. 3. Give an account of the Hansa league. 4. What part did Lübeck play at this time? 5. What causes brought about its decline? 6. How is its ancient splendor attested today? 7. What present importance has Hamburg among European cities? 8. Give a brief account of its history. 9. Show how its trade has increased in thirty years. 10. How have Germany's industries developed in this time? 11. How has her capital increased? 12. What is true of Germany's trade with the United States? 13. Describe Hamburg's harbor improvements. 14. What is true of Germany's other seaports? 15. What importance has Altona? 16. What of interest is to be found at Friedrichsruh? 17. Describe the situation and general appearance of Kiel. 18. Give an account of its growth within forty years. 19. What is the state of the German navy? 20.

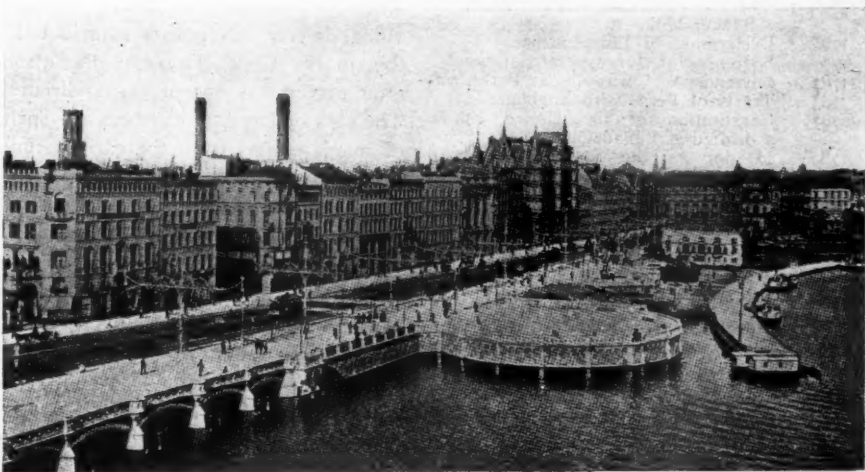
What service does the Baltic Canal render to commerce? 21. How is the influence of socialism shown at Kiel? 22. What are some of the distinctive features of Hamburg today?

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. How many governments and what kinds are included in the German empire? 2. What is the meaning of the motto over the portal of the Rathaus in Hamburg: "Libertatem quam peperere majores digne studeat conservare posteritas"? 3. What is the Zollverein which Hamburg entered in 1888? 4. Who owns the gas works and the electric lighting plant of Hamburg? 5. What control has Hamburg over its street car lines? 6. What qualifications must members of the Senate have in Hamburg? 7. Who was Klopstock? 8. What is the population of Germany? How does it compare with that of Great Britain? 9. What five European cities in the fourteenth century, held ducal rank and had the right to a place in the Emperor's Council?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Baedeker's "Northern Germany." Statesman's Yearbook, 1904. Schierbrand's "Germany: the Welding of a World Power." Bryce's "Holy Roman Empire." Henderson's "History of Germany." Longfellow's "Poets and Poetry of Europe" and "Poems of Places," Germany, 2 volumes. "The Hansa Towns," Helen Zimmern. (Putnam's Story of the Nations Series.) "German Life in Town and Country." W. H. Dawson. (Putnam's "Our European Neighbors"). "Germany and the Germans," by the same author. Kuno Francke's "History of German Literature as Determined by Social Forces." This book gives an appreciative analysis of the influence of Klopstock upon German literature. "Imperial Germany," Sidney Whitman. "Seen in Germany," Ray Stannard Baker. McClure. "Studies in German Literature," R. Hochdoerfer.



ALTER JUNGFERNSTIEG—MAIDEN LANE—ON THE BINNEN-ALSTER, HAMBURG



Beethoven and His Music, I

By Thomas Whitney Surette

Lecturer on Music for the American University Extension Society, Teachers' College of Columbia University, The Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, Member of the Folk Song Society of London, Editor Great Composers' Series Music Lovers' Library.

THE period between the dates of Beethoven's birth and death was fraught with great consequences to the civilized world. Events of immense importance followed each other rapidly, and brought about great changes not only in the disposition of power all over Europe and in America, but in social life—dress, manners, modes of thought, etc. The following chronological table will supply a ready reference to this period:

- 1763 End of Seven Years' War; establishment of the power of Prussia.
- 1773 First partition of Poland; enlargement of Prussian domain.
- 1774 First Continental Congress in Philadelphia.
- 1775 Battle of Concord. George Washington appointed Commander-in-chief of the American Army. Battle of Bunker Hill.
- 1776 Declaration of Independence.
- 1777 Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga.
- 1781 Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.
- 1783 Treaty of Peace with England.
- 1787 Constitution of the United States drafted at Philadelphia.
- 1789 Meeting of the States General at Versailles. Fall of the Bastille. Washington elected first President of the United States.
- 1792 Louis XVI committed to prison.
- 1793-4 Reign of Terror.
- 1795-9 The Directory.
- 1796 Appointment of Napoleon to command the French army.
- 1799 Napoleon First Consul.
- 1804-7 Conquest of Western Europe by Napoleon.

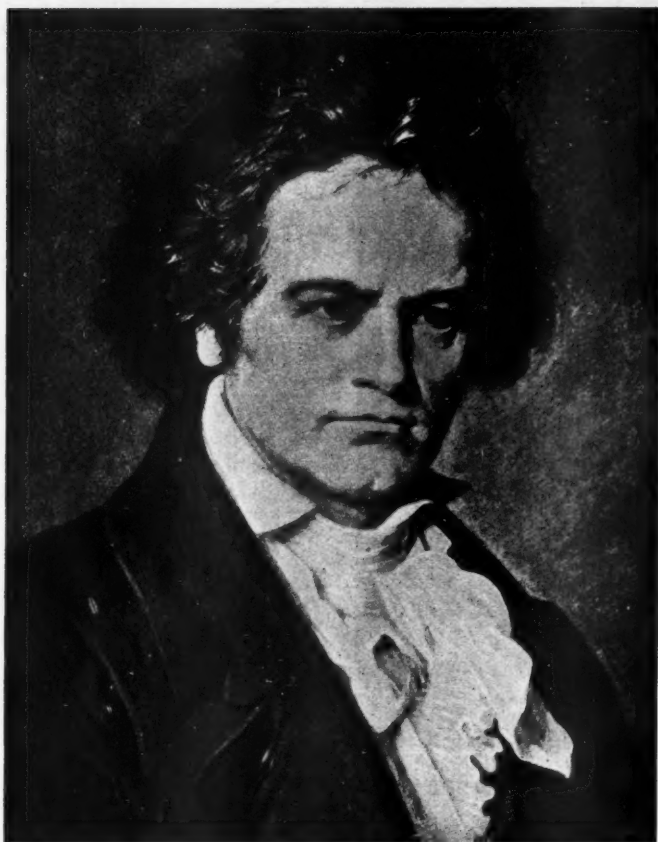
- 1809 Battle of Wagram.
- 1812 Napoleon's Russian campaign. Declaration of war between the United States and England.
- 1814 Treaty of Peace (at Ghent) between the United States and England. Napoleon banished to Elba.
- 1815 Battle of Waterloo.
- 1821 Death of Napoleon.

Probably no period of equal length in history witnessed an array of events such as these, but it must be kept in mind that we are dealing in this series of articles not so much with outward events, however important, as with the causes underlying them and the effect of these causes on one particular art. The primal cause underlying the two great struggles of this time—the American and French Revolutions—was the desire for individual liberty. Napoleon contributed to this in the Code Napoleon, though his after career was one of aggrandizement. The idea of freedom had been the spring of man's efforts from the earliest times, and its partial fulfillment at this period was bound to affect life in all ways both outwardly and inwardly.

Before considering Beethoven's music let us study his personality for a moment. Born in the university town of Bonn where his father held a small posi-

This is the fifth of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." A partial list in THE CHAUTAQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong.
 Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven I (January), Beethoven II (February), Schumann (March), by Thomas Whitney Surette.



LUDWIG VON BEETHOVEN
Dec. 16, 1770—Mar. 26, 1827.

tion in the official world, the boy Beethoven was confronted with a serious problem before his school days were over. His father was intemperate and, at the age of fourteen years, Ludwig had to set to work helping support his mother. His parents were humble people, not peasants like Haydn's father and mother, but of a class not much higher. His mother had been a cook. The boy was made to work hard at his music, and his father seems to have attempted to exploit him as a prodigy. When the father died, the family was thrown upon the slender resources of the children. So Beethoven seems to have had little of the happy childhood both Haydn and Mozart enjoyed. He played

the organ at the age of fourteen as assistant in the Cathedral at Bonn, and seems to have labored with a will at whatever he undertook. He is described as a serious young man, not given to the usual enjoyments of youth, and his friends in Bonn felt sure he was destined to do great things.

The account of his first journey to Vienna and his subsequent permanent settlement there may be read in Grove's Dictionary. It is worth noting that, as a young man in Vienna, he wore the conventional dress of the period, but soon discarded it for a more democratic garb. At all times then, as far as we are able to get view of him, Beetho-

ven was a man of a serious temper whose nature and experience were such as to make him, in a measure, a non-conformist in all matters. We know from his own words how closely he followed the

which had a new purpose. Sincerity had taken the place of conventionality; the *Seigneur* had become the citizen; "all men are born free and equal" was the watch-word, or as Burns puts it:

What though on hamely fare we dine
Wear hoddin gray, an' a' that?
Gie fools their silks, and knaves their wine,
A man's a man for a' that.

For a' that, an' a' that,
Their tinsel show, an' a' that,
The honest man, tho' e'er sae poor,
Is king o' men for a' that.



BEETHOVEN IN HIS STUDY

career of Napoleon, seeing in him a savior of mankind, and bitterly resenting his acceptance of the title "Emperor." Brusque in speech, erratic in behavior, perfectly incalculable in all matters, Beethoven stood as a type of that growing company of thinkers who protested against intellectual and social slavery and who knew no aristocracy save that of the intellect. Unlike Mozart, Beethoven asserted his rights and refused subserviency even to princes.

This glance at Beethoven's personality, coupled with a statement of the stirring times into which he was born, explains, in a measure, how the art of music, which reached in Mozart a climax of perfection, immediately took a new impulse instead of, as is usually the case, experiencing a period of quiescence. Out of this turmoil and travail was born a new art, and one

One other consideration presents itself here: namely, that as regards the means of expression in music, Beethoven's period saw a considerable advance. He was the first great composer to have at his disposal a grand piano; he made skillful use of comparatively new instruments like the clarinet, and felt keenly the possibilities of each voice in the *orchestra.

The two conditions, then, which we noted in the article on Mozart as not having been fulfilled: namely, that the composer should be accepted as the equal of a writer or painter, and that the art itself should have reached a point where it had become a flexible and adequate medium for the composer—these two conditions were, in the case of Beethoven, fulfilled, and the great advance he made in enlarging the scope of the art of music was due in a measure to this fortunate combination of circumstances.

What was this advance? And how was it expressed? First of all it was an advance in the type or scale of ideas. That is, Beethoven's music impresses the listener as being more serious than that of his predecessors. It does not depend for its effect on beauty alone, but on its sincerity and its human quality. Place alongside a symphonic theme of Mozart's, one of a corresponding nature by Beethoven and the point becomes clear. The following excerpt from the first movement of Mozart's G minor Symphony may be com-

*The student is recommended to read in this connection the article on "Orchestration" in Vol. II of Grove's Dictionary.

pared with the beginning of Beethoven's *Fifth Symphony, to the first movement of which this article is devoted.



This theme is lyric; that is, it is in regular verse form, with two measure phrases, four measure sections, and eight measure periods matching a verse of poetry. The accompaniment to it is formal and conventional, and there is in the whole no element of seriousness, no vivid contrast, no dissonant quality. The theme from Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, on the contrary, begins with a startling and significant phrase followed by a pause. The idea is non-lyric, and does not depend on beauty for its effect, but rather on its emotional significance. Here is music expressive of a deeper view of life and full of that struggle which was not only personal to Beethoven but common to his time; music which we feel at once to be of an entirely new type. Almost any melody or theme of Beethoven, save those written when a very young man, has something of this flavor.

What we said—in the article on Mozart—of the development of poetry applies here. Here we have music which aims

To become now self-acquainters
And paint man man, whatever the issue.

To bring the invisible full into play!
Let the visible go to the dogs—what matters?

*The complete Fifth Symphony of Beethoven may be had in the form of specially annotated rolls for the pianola. See note in the September CHAUTAUQUAN.

This motto theme of the Fifth Symphony sounds like a challenge, has in it something of the inevitable. Beethoven himself said of it, "Thus fate knocks at a man's door."

But it must not be supposed that this new music was iconoclastic. We take it for granted that the reader knows how inevitably everything really great in the world of ideas rests on what has gone before; how all things slowly evolve; how small a part of any new work is really original. As Goethe says,

Genius conceives and understands the importance of form at once; and submits to its rules willingly and ungrudgingly. Only the smatterer, only the pretender, misled by vanity, will desire to substitute his limited peculiarity for the unconditional whole, and to excuse his wrong maxims under the plea of an irresistible feeling of originality and independence.

Beethoven's music is always and entirely a natural evolution from that of his predecessors. This may be observed by reference to the following example and to the other illustrative music for this article:



The above theme from the beginning of the slow movement to Beethoven's first Pianoforte Sonata is Mozart-like in character. Its style is placid, its whole effect that of an elegant and reposeful beauty. The *turn, the formal accompaniment, the harmonies, all belong to the older period. From this beginning, in fealty to old ideals, Beethoven gradually developed his style, never tearing down, always building on sound and long understood principles.

Let us now turn to the great work which is to serve as the illustrative music for the two articles on Beethoven, the **Fifth Symphony in C minor, Op. 67. This epoch making composition was written between 1805 and 1808, when Beethoven was between 35 and 38 years old. By the fortunate preservation of his sketch books we are enabled to see how it gradually grew in his mind. The early sketches of the first theme are given by Grove in his invaluable book, "Beethoven and His Nine Symphonies," to which every reader of this article should have access. Two of these sketches are given below and by comparing them with the beginning of the Symphony, some idea may be had of the process by which a great work like this is evolved in the mind of the composer.



*Indicated on the music by an asterisk.

**Beethoven's Fifth Symphony for Piano, four hands, in the Schirmer edition, may be had for 35 cents; the first volume of Beethoven's Symphonies for Piano, four hands (containing Symphonies Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) for \$1.00, in paper, and for \$1.50 in cloth binding. The Full (Orchestral) Score of the Fifth Symphony in miniature form may be had for \$1.15.



Beethoven often rewrote a theme twenty times before it was finally full grown in his mind.

Let us now examine the first movement, the measures of which should be consecutively numbered by the student from beginning to end. The first four measures contain what may be called the "motto" of the movement, and even a casual glance at the following pages of the music will reveal how persistently it is used. The theme proper, (*6-21) is followed by a second, and louder enunciation of the motto phrase followed, as before, by a pause (24), after which the theme is again given out (to impress it on the listener). Here, too, it becomes extended (38), all the orchestra finally joining in (44), and bringing it to a climax (50), after which the horns sound the original **motif (59) and the second theme enters (63) in the first violins. This beautiful melody is the antithesis of the first, as is almost always the case in movements of this character. It is as though the composer were presenting two characters, the hero and the heroine of his story, the former virile, bold and fearless, the latter tender and feminine. The student should note that the bass to this second theme (65) consists of a phrase from theme one. This lovely melody is extended, as was the first theme, all the while accompanied

*Numbers in parentheses always refer to the consecutive numbered measures of the movement.

**Motif. A characteristic short phrase, shorter than a theme, and often part of it.

by the bass motif, or phrase, until, at (94) a new passage begins which may be called the closing theme. This is full of vigor and leads (40) into a final passage, based on the original, initial motif of the Symphony, which brings this portion of the movement to a close in a related key [compare the chord at (122) with that at (7)]. The double bar (124) indicates the close of this section.

We have had now all the subject matter, and there remains the development of this material. The themes given out—Theme I, Theme II, and the Closing Theme—are so tangible, so easily grasped, that the observing student will have no difficulty in tracing their development. One of the most interesting portions of the development section, or "Free Fantasia" begins at (195). Here the phrase which first appeared in unison at (59-62) evolves itself into a passage of considerable length based entirely on the two chords of the original (97-98) and finally almost losing its physiognomy in a repetition of one chord alone, answered between the *wood-winds and strings. This is then (228) rudely broken in upon by the whole orchestra with the original motif, which brings the "Free Fantasia" to a close (218).

The passage between (195) and (227) is a good illustration of a common process in music by which an idea takes on new meaning through certain changes in its context. Here is (195-97) a phrase or motif previously used as the announcement to Theme II (95-98) and originally belonging to the opening phrase of the whole movement. Beethoven takes it in hand and lets it gradually lose definiteness until it becomes a series of nearly formless chords which by themselves would be quite lacking in significance but here carry on his thought into a new phase which owes all its meaning to the context. In other words here is a passage without melody and coherence in itself,

yet full of significance, and supplying at this point just that relief which is needed after the continual recurrence of definite themes. This passage illustrates the varied quality to be found in all symphonic music: how meaning or significance exists in every portion of a great work, and how varied are the means of expression at the composer's disposal.

At the close of the "Free Fantasia" (248) the last section of the movement begins. This contains Theme I, with a pathetic interpolated passage for the oboe (268), Theme II [in the key of the movement—compare (59-66) with (303-310)], the same closing theme (also in the key of the movement), and a long *Coda. The coda begins (374) where, in the first part of the movement, the close, or ending occurs (124); in other words, the movement is here extended to give a dramatic completeness and to avoid too great abruptness. In the Handel Chorus, "All we like sheep," (see page 149 in the October CHAUTAUQUAN) the coda consisted of the prolongation of the last chords: here it occupies 128 measures and is full of vivid dramatic interest. In certain passages portions of the thematic material become entirely transformed, as at (430-447) where the four notes from (75-76) are filled with fierce and savage anger, or at (82-86) where the strings repeat loudly a part of the original motif of the movement. This passage is repeated with even greater intensity at (390-5), while at (480-2) the whole orchestra gives out a bare and terrible chord lacking that particular interval (the third) which would soften it and make it normal. (In playing the last named passage the performers may fill out the chord at (481) by adding, throughout its entire range, the note B natural; it will then be perceived how Beethoven produces his effect.)

The following diagram explains the structure of this movement. By comparing what follows here with the diagram

*Wood-winds. Flutes, oboes, clarionets and bassoons.

*Coda. See foot-note to page 149 of the October CHAUTAUQUAN.

of "Sonata Form" in the Haydn article (page 249 of the November CHAUTAUQUAN) it will be seen that the general form is the same; the addition of the long

Coda, however, gives the movement an immensely greater significance, and saves the Recapitulation from being merely a restatement of the Exposition.

BEETHOVEN'S FIFTH SYMPHONY, FIRST MOVEMENT, "SONATA FORM"
STRUCTURAL PLAN

| A | B | *A |
|---|---|---|
| EXPOSITION | FREE FANTASIA | RECAPITULATION |
| I. Introduction (1-5). First Subject (6-21) followed by motif from Introduction (23-24). First Subject restated and prolonged (25-58), the latter part serving to lead to the short introduction to second subject (63-94). | Based on subjects, or motifs from the Exposition. From First Subject (125-179). From Introduction to Second Subject (175-178) coupled with three notes from original motif (178-187). From the Introduction to Second Subject with the last two notes extended, and finally separated (195-238). From the original motif again (238-248). | I. Introduction (248-252) by full orchestra. First subject (253-302) with interpolated oboe solo. |
| II. Second Subject (94-110). | | II. Second Subject in Tonic Major (307). |
| III. Closing Theme (95-109) followed by short Coda (110-124). | | III. Closing Subject (347). |
| | | IV. Coda (374). |

The student is especially directed to play this movement many times, remembering that all great music has to make its appeal not only to the intelligence but to the feelings, and that constant repetition is necessary to the understanding of any symphony.

In the February number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN we shall discuss the three following movements of this Symphony. The student should play over these movements several times in advance of the study to be devoted to them.

In conclusion, the reader should remember that the purpose of these articles will be in a measure defeated if they are looked upon as divorced from history, from the thoughts and deeds of men in the periods with which the articles deal. Even more strongly are they connected with the ideals of life—with the meaning of great men, with the *significance* of history, with the soul of a nation.

For these reasons chapters from Carlyle and Emerson are included in the bibliography. Students should read the complete works from which these chapters are drawn. THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October and November furnishes valuable help for study in connection with our two

articles on "Beethoven." "The Afterglow of the Revolution," and "Reaction and the Republican Revival," by Frederic Austin Ogg, both throw much light on the events of the period during which Beethoven was composing some of his greatest works.

Above all, however, the student must think. All written and spoken words imparting knowledge are futile until that not common operation of the mind has taken place. "Knowledge is of no use without intelligence. What is the use of lighting additional candles for the blind?"

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What analogies can you make between the Fifth Symphony of Beethoven and the works of any contemporaneous author? 2. Between the structure of the First Movement of this Symphony and any other work of art or literature? 3. What estimate do you make of Beethoven's character. 4. What is the difference between his themes and those of Mozart?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Vol. I, "Beethoven," Vol. IV, "Symphony," Vol. I, "Form." Grove, "Beethoven and His Nine Symphonies." Schindler-Moscheles, "Life of Beethoven." Hadow, "Sonata Form." Carlyle, "Heroes and Hero Worship," Introductory Chapter. Emerson, "Representative Men," Introductory Chapter. Baker, "Biographical Dictionary of Musicians." Goopp, "Symphonies and Their Meaning," Chap. IV.

*In the diagram on page 249 of the November CHAUTAUQUAN the words "or coda" at the head of the third column should have been omitted.

Civic Lessons From Europe

The Play Movement in Germany

By Henry S. Curtis, Ph. D.

GERMANY is a most interesting country. It is interesting from the industry and enterprise of its people. It is interesting because in nearly every line of scientific, artistic, or educational progress, Germany represents the growing tip of the world tree.

It is interesting from the standpoint of play no less than from other aspects. Yet we do not ordinarily associate the idea of playfulness with the German character or temperament. We speak of England as the home of athletics, and we usually think of Germany rather as the *alma mater* of gymnastic systems than of play curriculums. Germany is dominated by a military ideal, and she has fashioned her system of physical training to make strong her legions on the battle-field. Still Germany is no less interesting in her plays than in her gymnastics, though gymnastics seem a more natural expression of the German character.

The first important German writer on the subject of play was Froebel. It was his peculiar merit to organize the simplest dramatic plays, which small children have ever played the world over, into a system, and make it a part of the educational curriculum. Although this system was the work of an adult mind, it lost none of its interest for the little people, and the rhymes added a new charm to the play. In directing the play of the small children, it taught them to be kind and generous and courteous to each other. The kindergarten is still the best example of what

directed play may do. However, it did not take deep root in Germany, and there are now no free kindergartens there, while they are becoming almost universal in America, the home of their adoption.

The man who has probably done the most to encourage play in Germany in recent years is E. Von Schenkendorff of Görlitz. E. Von Schenkendorff is a public official, and not a gymnast or a teacher, but he is very vitally interested in play. His work has been rather that of a promoter than that of an originator in this field. Through his efforts the Emperor and the Minister of Education were interested in the encouragement of games, and a royal commission was sent to England to observe the sports of the boys in the English public schools and the plays of the people in the parks and playgrounds. This commission spent several weeks in visiting schools and playgrounds. On its return to Germany, it published a report in which the English games and English encouragement of games were spoken of in the highest terms, and a number were recommended for introduction into Germany. Through the assistance of the Emperor and the Minister of Education, this report was officially circulated throughout the empire and the play movement was launched on a high tide of official approval. Within four years after this, there is a record of more than four hundred playgrounds being established. Play leaders, who were required to have accurate knowledge of the growth of the

This is the fifth of a series of nine articles on "Civic Lessons from Europe." A partial list is as follows:

Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie (September).

La Maison du Peuple, a Belgian Coöperative Business, by Mary Rankin Cranston (October).

Forestry in Germany, by Raphael G. Zon (November).

Coöperative Industries, by Mary Rankin Cranston (December).

Public Playgrounds, by H. S. Curtis (January).

German Municipal Social Service, by Howard Woodhead (February).



A SCHOOL PLAYGROUND IN THE PARK, BERLIN
 Drawn from photograph for THE CHAUTAUQUAN

heart and other vital organs and to be trained educators, were placed in charge. These leaders are on duty on the Wednesday and Saturday half holidays, and after school every day.

The English commission was in part a cause and in part a result of an interest in play that is based on profound physiological and sociological considerations. The congresses on hygiene, that have been held in Germany of recent years, have emphasized the necessity of abundant exercise in the open air in order to maintain health, and to ward off disease.

The congresses on tuberculosis have had a still greater influence, for they have emphasized the germicidal value of sunlight and the tonic value of fresh air to the lungs and the general system, and have proclaimed that life in the open air is the best preventive and cure of consumption. Then it became evident too

that the English athletic field filled nearly the same place in English life that the beer garden did in German life, and that it was much better to play than to drink. Play not merely prevents drinking by providing a strong, competing interest, but it makes strong the constitution so that the drinking indulged in is less injurious. The German doctors also proclaimed that for adolescents there is nothing like athletic sports to ease the sexual strain and make a moral life probable. All of these conferences and ideas have borne fruit in the establishing of playgrounds. The Germans have become thoroughly convinced of the value of play and have set out in a very intelligent way to promote it.

Perhaps the most successful of all the methods used to excite interest in the subject has been the play congresses, of which there have been five. The first of

these was held in 1889 and the last one in 1902. There is to be another in 1905. They have been held in different cities, and have called together from all parts of Germany, men who are interested in play. They have included among their speakers, sociologists, physical trainers, physicians, and prominent educators. The presiding officer has often been an official of high rank. Aside from the papers and discussions, which were the main work of the congresses, there have always been tournaments or exhibitions of games so that the practical and theoretical sides of the question were presented side by side.

Through the games and discussions, the newspapers have been interested in the congresses, and have brought them and their purposes to the attention of the people. The various studies and papers have since been published in technical journals or in *Das Jahrbuch für Volks und Jugendspiel*, an annual edited and published by E. Von Schenkendorff and Professor Schmidt of Bonn, and devoted entirely to the interests of play. This magazine has published many of these papers, and has been issued every year since 1892. It is now a volume of some 275 pages. So far as I know, it is the only publication in the world that is entirely devoted to play. It combines the scientific with the practical in its treatment of the subject, and has had an immense influence in creating interest and directing activity. It has been the voice of the play movement in Germany, and its mere existence has lent a certain dignity, and official and scientific sanction to every effort to promote play or to found playgrounds.

But perhaps the best effect of the play congresses has been what we might call the camp meeting effect. It has been a revival meeting for the promoters of play. It has warmed their enthusiasm,

and they have returned to their homes in various parts of the empire as missionaries of the new gospel. Their enthusiasm has borne fruit in the founding of playgrounds and the general encouragement of play.

Almost the only agency that reaches all the people is the school system. The only way to give a race an interest or purpose is to teach it to the children. No other people appreciate the truth of this more fully than the Germans. Consequently we need not be surprised to learn that one of the first things the Germans did, was to arrange a curriculum of games, graded according to the grades of the common school, and put it into the course on a par with the other subjects. Thus the last step in the curricularization of play has been completed. Froebel systematized the play of children below the school age. This later movement systematized the plays of the common school, and the English public schools (corresponding to our high



A SAND GARDEN, GERMAN CHILDREN'S PLAYGROUND

Drawn from Photograph for THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

schools) have made the great team games of football and cricket a part of their regular work, compulsory for every boy. Thus we now have a play course beginning with the kindergarten and running on up to the university. The kindergarten is probably thus far the most successful, but football, cricket and rowing mean quite as much to the boy at Eton and Rugby as Latin and Greek and mathematics. These organized games for the common school complete the course. It is unfortunate that we have not another great genius like Froebel to fashion them into another great system that should do for the schoolboy what the kindergarten does for the small child. But geniuses come not on demand, and we must wait the forming hand of time to perfect the system. Yet even now great progress has been made.

I happened to be at Heidelberg in 1902 at the time of the final examinations in one of the *Real Schulen*. There were three days of examinations. One day was given entirely to an examination in games, and two days to the examinations in scholastic subjects. At the play congress which was held in Nuremberg in the same year, the chief Olympic feature was an exhibition given by 8,000 school children of the games they had learned at school. The tournament took place in a broad meadow which was situated near the city. The entire curriculum of games from the first grade up through the high school was played. In the first event sixty-seven classes of girls came on together. These girls represented all the grades of the elementary school. Each class played a different game, and sixty-seven games went on simultaneously. The report says: "The children, darting to and fro in their bright-colored dresses in the sunlit meadow, made an entrancing spectacle, while the accompaniment of song which characterized many games, enthralled the ear as well." "The girls were wild with enthusiasm," the report says. After the girls had played for half

an hour they marched off the field to the music of the bugle, and sixty-seven classes of boys took their places and in turn played the games of their course of study. After another half hour the boys gave place to classes from the higher schools. A feature of this third period was that there were fourteen games of football going on at once. After the games were over, prizes were given to the children who had played the best. The usual prize in athletic contests in Germany is a crown of oak leaves and sometimes a "beautifully engraved diploma" as well.

This is the most ambitious exhibition of games that was ever given so far as I know, but many cities of Germany could have given a similar exhibition if occasion had called for it.

This new school activity has been carried on in part after school hours and on half holidays; but all of the lower grades have three hours a week for gymnastics and a very large proportion of the schools devote a large part of this time to games. The law generally requires that the gymnastics themselves shall be given in the open air on all pleasant days. Perhaps the most encouraging circumstance in the situation is the tendency to fix a minimum playground space for each child in a school. The whole trend of recent thought goes to show that the educational value of the playground on the physical, social, and moral sides is at least equal to that of the rest of the school course. If this is so, we must obviously demand a space for each child in the playground quite as much as we must a seat in the school. The city of Munich now requires 25 square feet of playground to every scholar. This is not up to the London requirement of 30 square feet, but it is, I believe, more adequate than the space provided by any American city. Twenty-five square feet per child would mean one acre of playground to 1,741 children, or between two and three acres for most of the New York schools.



A SAND GARDEN, BERLIN

Drawn from Photograph for THE CHAUTAU QUAN.

The training of the teachers to become leaders in play, has been no small task, as many of them had never played much in their childhood. Courses in play have been given in five or six different cities of Germany every summer for the last ten years, and over 6,000 teachers have been taught to play the games of the curriculum. There has usually been a fee of four or five marks for each teacher who has taken the course; but, as each one has received the year book and other supplementary publications and guides on play, which would ordinarily cost about six marks, the fee has really been a negative quantity. The courses have been given by the same people who have been most prominent in the play congresses.

There are several new and interesting things in the Berlin schools. A large number of the elementary schools of Berlin have swimming baths attached to them, and the boys receive regular instruction in swimming along with their other work,

These are the only elementary schools in the world, I believe, having such baths, though the children in many of the English and Scotch and American cities receive instruction in the public baths.

Another interesting thing is that the school gymnasium and oftentimes the library are in a building in the yard separate from the main school. The Germans think this is an advantage because it allows more freedom without disturbing the rest of the school and there is no danger of the contamination of the air from the dust raised by exercises. But perhaps the greatest advantage of this arrangement is that it allows these gymnasiums to be opened to the public at night without the rest of the school being disturbed.

If for any reason there are not sufficient sittings in the school of any district, temporary barracks are erected on vacant lots, leased for the purpose, so that accommodations are provided for all. However, in all the schools the children under eight



CONCERT GARDEN PLAYGROUND, BERLIN

Drawn from Photograph for THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

years of age go home at eleven o'clock, and the children under ten at twelve o'clock, so they really have no more time in school than our 125,000 half time scholars in New York City.

The schools which are situated near the parks, often have a park playground assigned to them. One of these that I visited was about three acres in extent and was shared by three schools, each of which had it two afternoons a week. There were three teachers directing the play of the children at the time I was there.

The present wave of athletic enthusiasm has not yet reached the universities, and they are jogging on their way much as usual. There are no contests between universities and no university teams. Duelling takes the place of athletics. The slashed and patched faces of the students appearing at the station are still the first

announcement that one has entered a university town, and, in a stay of a week one can usually see a dozen or more duels fought.

There is not the same need for the vacation playground in Germany that there is with us, because other provisions for the children are better and the summer vacation is usually only four or five weeks long. Nevertheless the work has been well organized for years. In the beginning, a committee or private association was usually formed which waited on the park department and asked that space be assigned for the children's play. The association then raised the money from private sources and equipped the playgrounds with simple gymnastic apparatus, bats, rackets, balls, etc., for games. Two or three teachers were placed in charge. As time went on and the work became

better organized, the school authorities have generally assumed control of the work and paid the teachers' salaries. Besides these playgrounds in the parks, the school yards also have been opened to the children in the summer during recent years.

The movement for play has not, however, been confined to the schools. The plays of the children and adults outside the schools have been quite as systematically promoted as the plays of the school children.

The first German playgrounds to attract general notice in this country were the so called sand gardens. These sand gardens may very properly be called the source of the present playground movement in America; for it was an account of them to the Massachusetts Hygiene Association which led to the founding of similar sand gardens in Boston in 1886. This may very credibly be said to be the beginning of the movement in America.

The American sand garden usually consists of a yard furnished with fine white sea sand and in charge of a kindergartner, but a German sand garden is a very simple affair. The sand is the common sand from the country side. It is oftentimes changed every day. There it no kindergartner or other person in charge, but the children of all ages and sizes are free to come as they will, and dig at their pleasure. These gardens are located in vacant lots or in the parks. They are generally shaded by trees and surrounded by benches. Here the mothers and the nurse girls come with their knitting and their gossip. The children dig in the sand, while the elders amuse themselves according to their inclination. The sand is sometimes placed in raised trays so the children can stand about it and mould or dig, but it is also very often simply brought in by the wagon load and dumped on the ground like a load of plasterer's sand. These sand gardens are frequently placed in one corner of a playground for larger children.

One of the most interesting kinds of German playgrounds is connected with the large concert gardens and beer gardens. A German beer garden is by no means described by saying it is a place where beer is drunk. It would be about as accurate an account to describe Germany itself, in this way. The beer garden is the chief social center of a German city. It is a place where good food may be had cheap, and the food, the beer, and the conversation are colored and infused by pervasive melody. The beer garden being what it is, a very large proportion of the population, especially of the women, find their way there on the summer afternoons. They usually bring the children with them. Consequently, all the large beer gardens and concert gardens (which are the same thing on a higher plane) have to make provision for the children. This provision is usually a playground of about half an acre in extent, which is situated near by. This playground contains simple gymnastic apparatus, swings, seesaws, may-poles, etc. Besides this apparatus which is common in America, there is often a slender pole 50 to 75 feet in length, laid on supports rising about a foot from the ground, for walking and balancing. Children love to walk a tight rope. This horizontal mast gives them nearly the same pleasure without the danger. Another feature that I noticed in one or two gardens was an artificial hill for the children to ride down in their express wagons.

The German ideal of what a playground should be is what they call a *Waldspielplatz*, or forest playground. This is an ideal that is hard to realize at once, as forest glades are not numerous about most great cities, and making them is expensive. The usual method is to secure the playground and then plant trees around it until the outer world is entirely shut off. This is an ideal that has not as yet taken root in America apparently, but such a playground is really much more attractive than any other. The trees



TREPTOW PARK, BERLIN

Drawn from Photograph for THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

keep out the dust and smoke, and suck up most of the noxious gases that escape from chimneys and other sources. The noise of the city is lost or deadened in the barrier of foliage and one is enabled more easily to forget its busy life. The trees themselves provide shade for the idlers and an additional nature element, which is so much needed by city children.

Among the finest of these forest playgrounds is the one of the Munich Turnverein. This is a splendid field surrounded by trees and used not only by the *Verein* but by the upper classes in the schools as well.

A fine example of a forest playground for small children is in Treptow Park, Berlin. This playground which is forty acres in extent is situated in the center of a large forest. The woods are so deep that the roar of the city is lost, and one feels as though he were in a sunny meadow in the country, surrounded by the primeval forest. This is a favorite resort for nurse girls with baby carriages,

and parents with small children. The meadow is oval in shape and is surrounded, first by four concentric rows of cottonwood trees beneath which are walks and benches, and after by the forest itself. There is a beer garden and restaurant at one end.

A number of the German cities are now holding an athletic carnival every year, which is a regular city holiday. At these carnivals all sorts of sports and athletic events take place. Football is becoming more and more prominent.

In conclusion, an observer of this recent play movement in Germany must perceive that it has not arisen from the spontaneous interest of the people, as have English sports, but that it is rather an exotic which has been transplanted with care and tended with singular intelligence. I know of no wiser means of arousing a new enthusiasm in a people.

[Bibliography and other supplementary material, including program outlines, will be found in "Survey of Civic Betterment," beginning p. 470.]

Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare

Contemporary Psychology

By James Rowland Angell

University of Chicago.

IN the mind of the average man there are probably few things so supremely unimportant for the welfare of society as psychology. Certainly it is true, as Kant said of philosophy, that psychology bakes no bread. Moreover, it builds no bridges, constructs no engines, makes no laws and paints no pictures. It seems remote in its interests from most of the great practical undertakings of the social organism and apparently it does not even contribute to the amusement of mankind. Under such circumstances a discussion of its relation to social progress may at first blush strike the casual reader as simply a fatuous effort to demonstrate the undemonstrable. But a broader and keener scrutiny of the situation will reveal radical errors in such a view, and we shall find ourselves embarrassed far less by the difficulty of exhibiting these fallacies, than by the necessity for selecting from among the numerous available instances those cases which best illustrate the point at issue.

In attempting to measure social progress we are inevitably beset by the temptation to employ as standards some of the more palpable physical signs of change. Our thoughts turn at once to telegraphs and railroads, to telephones and automobiles, to the Brooklyn bridge and the skyscraper, to the electric light and the patent breakfast food. These and their congeners, designed to annihilate time and space, to revolutionize industrial methods, or to contribute to one or another of our creature comforts, are the things which loom

largest in the usual inventory of progress. With such matters psychology has, indeed, only the slightest contact. But the social structure has in it elements other than the merely physical. Social interests overflow any such boundaries at a thousand points, and social advance in affairs of mind and spirit is none the less genuine, because more difficult accurately to gauge than the corresponding advance in the mere mastery of matter. In much of this progress within the realm of mind we shall find that psychology plays an important part. Furthermore, there are a few particulars in which the influence of psychology reaches out beyond the purely mental and impinges upon the physical itself.

Before we come to close quarters with details, it behooves us, with a view to avoiding certain familiar misapprehensions, to call to mind the remarkable transformation which psychology has undergone in the last quarter century. The old-fashioned psychologist of a generation ago was a pertinacious person of patient demeanor, who ensconced himself amid comfortable surroundings and with the assistance of suggestions from Aristotle, Locke, Kant, Hegel and other philosophers made out as much as he could of the constitution of his own mind. What he accomplished in this way was often admirable, but it was necessarily circumscribed in significance, because the field of work was ridiculously incomplete and the method employed hopelessly inadequate. Nowadays we have specialists in each of a

This is the third of a series of articles on "Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare." The following articles, contributed by Professor H. W. Conn, have already appeared: "Bacteriology: Food, Drink and Sewage," September; "Bacteriology: Contagious Diseases," October.

half dozen distinct fields (*e. g.*, child psychology, abnormal psychology and physiological psychology) and methods have been elaborated and refined beyond the possibility of satisfactory description in a paper of this character. Modern psychology is, therefore, not to be identified as often occurs in popular impression, either with the study of ghosts, telepathy and mind-reading on the one hand, or with the scholastic analysis by the psychologist of his own mind on the other. It is a much broader and more complex affair than these misconceptions would imply. Its task is the complete understanding of consciousness in all its forms and wherever found.

One of the great avenues along which advance has of late been made, especially in this country, is that of elementary education. Whether the developments which have occurred have all been for the better or not, there can at least be no question that psychology has been responsible, directly or indirectly, for many of them. A few specific instances may serve to make this clear.

Every progressive teacher of the present day believes in so organizing the school curriculum as to appeal in the largest possible measure to children's actual interests. The old ideal conceived of education as consisting largely in the acquirement of a certain amount of information, which some time or other in the remote future would probably be of value. If the child found the assimilation of this material tedious and repellent and stupid, so much the worse for the child. Willy-nilly through the mill he must go—pushed, pulled, coaxed and threatened, but somehow jammed through. The result of this process was said to be the attainment of a high moral courage, a fine capacity to face and conquer the disagreeable, together with a considerable fund of knowledge. It is to be added that a few unnatural children found the process positively agreeable. There were rewards as well as penalties, and for the favored ones

who captured these trophies the system had a pleasant savor. To large numbers of children, however, the process at its best was irksome, at its worst insufferable.

Now why has the feeling of teachers changed about this matter? Certainly not because in the conduct of a school it is easier to cultivate the children's interests than to follow the old well-trodden paths. No, far from it! The old rule-of-thumb procedure is often far easier for the teacher and can be carried out by a much lower grade of intellect than is required by the new régime. The change is largely attributable to the illumination which has come from psychologists regarding the nature and meaning of interests.

An interest is a vital center of energy in the mind, the expression of a nascent power. Interests are the great determining forces in the development of the will. They represent the natural heritage of motor tendencies with which each child is endowed and by virtue of which each differs somewhat from his neighbor. It is hardly too much to say that a well-trained will is simply a will which represents thorough systematization and organization of interests. In such a will is embodied all the vital motive power of the individual in its most concentrated and efficient form. Caprice and whim are powerless to cope with such consolidated forces.

Once this conception of interest had penetrated the pedagogical head and heart, it was promptly appropriated and put in practice. If a well formed and stable character has a vital relation to the coördination of interests, and if interests really betoken and foreshadow latent powers, then it becomes a solemn duty of education to take cognizance of them and utilize them as far as possible. Undoubtedly in the well-intentioned effort to secure this result, many foolish measures have been adopted. The danger of ruinous discontinuity of development, the danger of mistaking fancies for interests, the

danger of merely titillating an interest instead of disciplining it, the danger of encouraging laziness and shirking—these and many similar risks have to be fairly faced and fought against. But in the meantime the average child in our best schools feels a real delight and sense of power in his work which has often been denied to his forebears, and for this change psychology may fairly claim much credit.

Another similar change for which psychology is entitled to a measure of praise is found in the thorough revision of the curriculum and the extensive modifications of method which have come about under the influence of the common-sense Herbartian doctrine of apperception. Stripped of its technical terminology this doctrine simply means that all advance in knowledge consists of the union of the new with the old. A new idea must have some live points of contact with that which we already know, otherwise it can never get within our comprehension. The wholly strange is the wholly unintelligible. From this point of view the order in which the studies are introduced into the curriculum has been submitted to the most painstaking scrutiny, to the end that each new subject may be superimposed upon the widest and best foundations. And in the actual work of instruction every effort is made by well-trained teachers to bring out all the important relations which a subject has to the various phases of the child's life.

We might go on and multiply instances of this kind at considerable length. There are some particularly interesting ones touching the treatment of the adolescent period in school life, the diagnosis of fatigue and abnormal conditions in general. But these are sufficient to show that in education psychology has played a very genuine part, and it is safe to predict that in the future it will appear more, rather than less, significant.

Modern life among Christian peoples is profoundly religious or scandalously

irreligious, depending upon your point of view. If religion is interpreted as meaning literal adherence to the doctrine of spiritual inspiration, if it is identified with formal intellectual assent to complicated theological systems, then, undoubtedly, this is a spiritually depraved and godless age. But if religion is in any way identifiable with a fearless love of truth, with a deep solicitude for the welfare of humanity and a genuine passion for the furtherance of human happiness, then this epoch may fairly lay claim to a religious spirit as sincere as any the world has ever known.

One of the latest and most characteristic fruits of this modern religion of large-minded love for truth and humanity, is the psychological study of religious experience. Other days have seen their philosophies and histories of religion. But it has been reserved for our own to attempt the reverent and scientific exploration of the inner mysteries of the religious life itself. To some pious-minded persons this may seem a sacrilegious profanation of holy things. But no dispassionate person can read the rapidly growing literature dealing with this subject without feeling, after making due allowance for a measure of the jejune, that a saner ideal of religious life must ultimately issue from such work.

For instance, as a result of careful investigation it now appears that conversion, which has figured in the history of certain religious sects as a unique and necessary experience, is quite clearly to be regarded as simply a specific manifestation of a general tendency revealed among all peoples. In its most pronounced forms it is most common during adolescence, a fact which is undoubtedly in some degree connected with the physiological changes (the new birth, so to speak) which go forward at that time. It consists primarily in a much enlarged vision of the moral world, with a sense of consecration to the service of the righteous power which rules in it. This widened

outlook may come suddenly as by intuition, or slowly as the result of long reflection. It finds its counterpart among primitive peoples in the ceremonies by means of which the youth is initiated into the responsible life of the tribe. In its more violent forms, as sometimes witnessed during evangelistic revivals, it is often unquestionably vicious, leading like other excesses to reactionary after-effects which are morally and religiously deplorable.

The essentially hypnotic influences by which many revivalists work are clearly demonstrated in the large mass of data now at hand; and the fact is well established, however shocking it may seem, that the psychological processes by which large groups of persons are simultaneously converted, is one and the same with that by which mobs are brought to work crimes of violence and fury. In neither case is the result a reasoned one. It is simply an expression of surrender to powerful suggestion. Emphatic and oft-repeated assertion in the presence of high emotional tension will produce for the moment results of a practical kind putting to shame the calm persuasions of a quieter hour.

In a similar way psychologists have examined the experience known as 'conviction of sin,' which in occasional instances verges upon the abnormality of melancholia. The historical records of the ecstasies of the saints have been carefully analyzed and many persons have given elaborate accounts of the experience of 'reconciliation,' the assurance of salvation, etc., with their accompanying sense of elation, transcending in intensity any other human experience of satisfaction and happiness. The religious life and ideas of children have likewise yielded a rich harvest to the patient investigator. Nothing is, perhaps, more astonishing than the widespread natural interest among children about religious ideas, and the astonishing precocity which many of them display in this direction.

One might go on indefinitely elaborating

the points which this new study is taking up. But sufficient has surely been said to show that in the reconstruction, which is unquestionably going forward among religious beliefs and ideals, psychology is certain to occupy an important place.

One of the most interesting phases of contemporary psychological investigation is found in the study of abnormal, morbid, and unusual mental conditions. Much of the best work in this branch of the science has been carried on by men who call themselves alienists rather than psychologists. But the outcome of their industry is none the less psychology and their methods of procedure are distinctly psychological. Many of the most valuable improvements in the treatment of the insane are based upon psychological principles, upon the betterment of mental hygiene, rather than upon any employment of drugs, save as the latter may contribute to general bodily vigor. Hypnotism has been carefully studied, its power, its therapeutic usefulness and limitations largely determined. Unhappily the medical value of suggestion and hypnotism is far less generally acknowledged than it should be by regular practitioners, and in consequence thereof we find quacks fattening from its use in every corner of the land, and at least two of the great sectarian movements of our day are employing it as their chief stock in trade.

An immense amount of effort has gone into the attempt to determine scientifically the genuineness of telepathy, clairvoyance, and spirit communication. Upon this question the camp of psychologists is bitterly divided against itself. By far the larger contingent regards the alleged evidence for these unusual modes of communication between minds as puerile and inconclusive. A few hardy souls, however, keep up the fight and vigorously maintain that our ordinary mode of communication with one another *i. e.*, through the senses, is not the only mode. They maintain that facts are now available which afford a scientific demonstration of

this belief. Indeed, certain of them go further and insist that we have through mediumistic channels contemporary evidence of immortality. Meantime, both parties to the contention are heartily agreed that a large proportion of all the advertising mediums and clairvoyants are frauds. Evidently, where authorities conflict, the layman must suspend judgment, or else perhaps on democratic principles accede to the negative verdict of the majority.

The revolutionary significance for our moral and religious practice, which would be involved in an empirical demonstration of the continuance of life after death, requires no discussion. Although the rank and file of plain people probably believe in the immortality of the soul, it is for the most part a faith based on a traditional dogma, which accords with a common desire, rather than a reasoned conviction. Philosophers and scientists have often been inclined to hold the doctrine outright untrue, or at least unprovable. One's influence persists after death as a factor in the cosmos, many of them say, but one's private consciousness probably passes away. This is at best a very pale and uninteresting variety of immortality, compared with that in which men have commonly believed and of which some of our psychologists now assure us. If they can really make good their case, the fact will be of the highest importance.

One branch of psychological inquiry known as physiological psychology might almost equally well be entitled psychological physiology. It has to do with the inter-relations of the body and the mind, and in certain of its aspects it has had most important consequences for surgery and medicine. While it is true that the mind and the brain are connected in a general way as wholes, it is also true that specific parts of the brain are primarily concerned with special functions of the mind, such as vision, hearing, etc. When the optic nerve connections are traced inward from the retina by means of various

methods now known to science, they are found terminating in a definite region in the posterior part of the surface of the cerebrum. Similarly, the auditory nerve is found connected with terminals on the lateral surface of the brain. The motor nerves distributed to the muscles are found originating from other centers in the cerebral cortex, and so we might plot out various functions for which the several cortical areas are seemingly indispensable. When any one of these regions is seriously injured by wounds or by disease, we meet with disturbances in the corresponding psychical functions.

Now, when a man comes to a surgeon with some form of paralysis, or epilepsy, or sensory disorder, it is not infrequently possible, by the application of such facts as we have just described, to connect his disease with the presence of a tumor or lesion of some kind in a particular part of the brain. The surgeon is thus able to localize the probable origin of the disturbance, an operation is performed, the disturbing substance removed, and the patient restored to health.

Over and above the immediate practical value of these modern discoveries, there is to be recognized their significant theoretical consequences. In the light of such facts as have been thus disclosed Descartes' conception of the soul as placidly perched upon the pineal gland within the brain must be relegated to the same limbo where dwells the primitive notion that the heart is the soul's corporeal habitation. Naïve theories of this kind can never again be entertained.

Experimental psychology, which is the most typical and progressive phase of modern psychology, has its important bearings in no single point of contact with other interests. It is rather a spiritual leaven, permeating with its influence all branches of psychological inquiry. If you would untangle with most scrupulous exactitude the intricate mechanism of memory, you must use the devices and procedure of the experimentalist.

Would you understand with precision the complexities of color vision, the peculiarities of the sense of rhythm, the principles of the perception of tone; would you learn exactly what occurs during a choice or an act of will; would you discover the intimate laws which govern the connection among our ideas; then you must in each and every case consult the experimentalist. It is, therefore, hardly possible without causing misapprehension to say Lo, here! or Lo, there! when asked to point out the practical bearing of experimental work. All the other paragraphs of this paper really embody in a greater or less degree the results of experiment. Certain of these simply reflect the influence of its spirit, whereas others involve appropriation and application of specific facts and principles which have sprung from it. It deserves to be added, however, that in a matter so practical as advertising, experimental psychologists have been appealed to for advice by business men and the results of their experiments have been adopted.

In scanning the intellectual horizon for news of the mind, psychologists have naturally turned to study the psychic life of animals. If the evolutionary doctrine is correct in its implication, there seems to be no reason why we should not discover the forerunners of our human minds in a study of the consciousness of animals. The results of these studies are so at variance with popular preconceptions, that the author despairs of expounding them in a convincing way in the small space which can be devoted to the subject. In the propagation and fostering of these popular misconceptions the stories of certain of our distinguished writers are efficient agencies.

Put briefly, two important results of such experimental observations on animals are (1) to show that very large portions of the supposedly intelligent acts of the lower animals, such as the ants and bees, are purely reflex and instinctive, probably involving little or no actual consciousness; and (2) to demonstrate that

only in the rarest instances do animals accomplish anything which could fairly be called making an inference. Their usual method of dealing with a new problem is the haphazard try-try-again method. Once success has attended their efforts, certain of the higher quadrupeds show themselves very quick in their ability to solve the problem over again, thus displaying alert use of memory. But the most intelligent animal remains in the condition of the little child who can be taught to do certain simple little things by rote, but who cannot be counted on for any original ability in handling a new situation.

The animals make up in wariness and persistency much of what they lack in spontaneous intelligence. But the gap between the adult man of civilization and the most intelligent of the apes is far in excess of any disparity immediately suggested by their bodily constitution. Undoubtedly, there is a corresponding difference in the intricacy of their respective brain structures, but this is a matter of microscopic demonstration. From the standpoint, then, of our general view of humanity, we must admit that through some fortuitous development of his brain man has so far transcended the intelligence of the orders from which he arose that even comparison is difficult. But such considerations touch the life and thought of men only in their larger outlooks, and have only such practical import as belongs to the remaining phases of psychology yet to be mentioned.

In the formation of the attitude of thoughtful persons toward the larger social and philosophic problems of the day, psychology plays a conspicuous part. For example, on reading a contemporary treatise on sociology, one is often at a loss to determine whether one is really engaged with psychology or sociology. He learns that the forces which operate in society are, after all, simply the forces which operate in the minds of the men who make up the social order, and to understand the one he is

therefore invited to analyze the other. The growth of the social consciousness in the individual is traced, the operation of social traditions in the form of imitation is explained, the social and racial character of emotion and instinct is exhibited, and so from one point to another he is led by the sociologist through the mazes of psychology.

In philosophy, too, the movement just at present is distinctly toward psychology and psychological methods. The problem of the relation of mind and matter, the problem of the nature of reality, the problem of determining the nature of right and wrong, true and false, beautiful and ugly, one and all these puzzles are now increasingly attacked from the standpoint of psychology. What do the distinctions with which these problems deal mean in the life of the individual? How

do they arise in *his experience*? What part do they play in *his fate*? These interrogations are typical of the forms in which philosophy is now asking its questions, and these are psychological forms. They appeal for their settlement to an analysis of the structure and function of consciousness. Whether or not sociology and philosophy play any significant part in determining the direction taken by the current of social movement, or whether they simply reflect the significance of that movement after it has occurred, is a question which need not be entered upon here.

For education, then, for religion, for medicine, for sociology and for philosophy, not to mention certain minor interests, psychology has a message; and if this be granted, no one can question that social progress owes something to the psychologist.

How the American Boy Is Educated

Changes in the Common School Curriculum

By Walter L. Hervey

Formerly President of Teacher's College; Member of the Board of Examiners,
New York City Schools.

ANY parent who will compare the school studies of his children with those of a generation ago will be struck by the number and the extent of the changes which have taken place. New subjects of study have been introduced; old studies have been essentially changed. Subjects formerly taken in the high school are now begun in the grades. The curriculum has been expanded and enriched. Children passing

through the grades of a modern school, come in touch with a wealth of facts, interests and activities which were formerly undreamed of.

These changes have arisen through the operation of definite causes which it is worth while to study. A generation ago the idea was prevalent that the purpose of school studies was to afford mental discipline. The several studies were thought of, and were used, as whetstones of the

This is the fifth of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey has undertaken to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. The following articles have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home Education, October; Bodily Basis, November; Schooling in Country and in City, December.

corresponding faculties of the mind. A curriculum once established on this basis would never have to be changed, unless, indeed, some change took place in the faculties of the mind—a new faculty arising which might require a new subject for its disciplining. The theory which is nowadays becoming prevalent and which determines in great measure the choice of studies in the school curriculum has already been referred to in this series as the theory of adjustment. What culture, efficiency and power does society demand of this individual? What must this boy know? What must he be able to do? What must he be interested in? What must be his ideals, his motives and his resources, if he is to become, in the highest sense, a member of society? These are the questions which are taking precedence of the old question, What do this child's powers require for their exercise and development? Not that the curriculum of today is not developing powers and sharpening faculties as well, if not better, than before; but rather that in the pursuit of a higher aim, we reach the lower—and reach it more surely and more easily. This change in education is analogous to the familiar change in religion whereby one finds himself less exercised about his personal salvation and more interested in serving his fellow men—and wins salvation through serving.

It is only fair to add that the full significance of this principle is by no means universally grasped. Its effects, however, are clearly and increasingly apparent in American schools.

This phrase "adjustment to environment" and the other expressions which have grouped themselves around it, as "community life," "socialization," "present life for present purposes"—if they are, or are to be, controlling ideas in determining what the American boy shall study when he goes to school, must not lapse into the limbo of cant. The following paragraphs are written with the intention of putting into them something of the

life and reality that they should contain.

Every child born into the world is surrounded, played upon, and ministered to by forces of nature: his body is composed of chemical elements, exerts physical energy, is a product of biological evolution, and is vitally related to plants, animals, the earth and the elements. The same child is also born into a human environment: he is surrounded by human beings, ministered to by human activities, enmeshed in human customs and institutions, subject to human laws. He, the newest comer, is the last link in an endless, interwoven chain, every other link of which is vitally related to himself; he is successor, contemporary, ancestor, all in one. His mind, moreover, is woven of the stuff of every other human mind, and is made in the image of God. This complex of persons and things, of activities and relations, of forces and powers, constitutes his environment. He cannot advance one step as a human being except by coming into vital touch with this environment. He cannot come into vital touch with this environment without thereby experiencing development, nurture, and spiritual quickening.

Because the child cannot at first truly interpret or rightly respond to the world environment, a special environment must be made to order for him. This is furnished by the home and by the school. It is the business of the school to bring bodily within school walls a modified, yet true, copy of the outside world. This reduced copy of world facts, activities and relations, we call the curriculum. It is evident that this curriculum cannot be wholly contained in books; that it must be as full of activities as is the world itself; that, as the world is many sided, so must the curriculum have many branches. Because, moreover, men are constantly making discoveries and adding new contributions to civilization; because they are constantly finding new and better ways of doing things; and because new human needs arise out of the changed social con-

ditions—because the world environment is changing, the curriculum must also change. And, further, since in the same country changes do not often occur when the need of them arises, and since in different countries there exist vitally different ideals and conditions, school curricula the world over must be expected to exhibit the greatest variations and contrasts. And so in fact they do.

A striking example of international variation in curricula is furnished by the subject of religion and morals. In Germany the subject "religion" heads every school program in every school in the empire. It is a required study, and much time is allotted to it. In England a definite time is allotted on all school programs to Bible study; but the visitor to a board school in the period assigned to this subject (the first hour in the morning) will notice many empty seats. Some of the children are excused under the "conscience clause," others on account of the alleged necessity of "working." There are many in England who would if they could, gladly replace the "Plagues of Egypt" with efficient moral instruction. In France religious instruction is rigidly debarred, and instruction in morals and civics is rigidly enforced. Every child in the republic is given a systematic course in the fundamental principles of morality and of civic duty, including, it is most interesting to note, "duties to God." The results of a generation of this instruction are said to be highly reassuring. In American public schools there is absolutely no instruction in religion, and practically no formal instruction in morals; the chief dependence being upon the atmosphere and organization of the school, the personality of the teacher, and the incidental training in morality conveyed by the regular subjects of instruction.

Sometimes the mere arrangement of the school room will give a key to the kind of curriculum there employed. In the familiar and time honored type of school room furniture *seats* predominate. There is ap-

parently little opportunity for activities other than reading and writing, ciphering and drawing. The aspect of such a school room must be discouraging to a child who is used to the freedom and activity of the playground, the street, or the farm. One little girl expressed this feeling when she said that the thing she did not like about school was that there she had to "sit around so much of the time." A more modern and certainly more attractive kind of school room furniture is seen in a certain school located in the city of New York which has been largely responsible for the wide introduction of one fundamental change in school methods and activities, and which is worthy of being followed in other respects also. In the first four grades of this school, there is a work bench in every room. The desks are ingeniously constructed so as to be readily transformed from reading desks to drawing tables. Each desk is mounted on rollers, and can be easily got out of the way. When the children gather for class recitation, instead of forming stiff rows, or sitting so that one child has his back turned to twenty or thirty others, the children gather around the teacher in compact, irregular, sociable groups.

I have thought that a good idea of how differently American school boys spend their time, might be given by following typical boys through one school day, thus securing a cross-section of one fiber of the curriculum. Accordingly I have done this with a number of boys, the data regarding three of whom, aged 10, 11 and 13 years, respectively, are here given. The first gives in his own words and with his own spelling, an account of a day in a district school in Massachusetts. The school is situated ten miles from a railroad and two miles from the boy's home.

School began at 9.00. We have devotions first. These consist of Reading from the Bible, the Lord's Prayer, and singing of songs.

My first study period comes at this time in which I study my geography, 9.15 to 10.30.

How the American Boy Is Educated

At 10.30 comes recess for 15 minutes, 10.45.

10.45 to 11.30 comes the geography class. Today the topic is the Po and the Apennines.

From 11.30 to 12.00 is another study period in which I study my arithmetic. I also study my spelling. Then we have the noon recess. (One hour.)

The first thing in the afternoon comes writing and then spelling, 20 minutes.

A study period until half past two, 1.20 to 2.30.

Recess comes then, 2.30 to 2.45. 2.45 to 3.00 study period.

At 3.00 comes my arithmetic class.

After that comes reading. Today the lesson story is *The Legend of Indian Corn*.

Then we have language on some days but today we did not. School closed at 4.00.

The following is a letter written by a rural New Yorker, aged 13, who gives a glimpse of school life in a village of about 1,600 inhabitants:

School begins at 9.00 o'clock in the morning. From 9.00 to 9.10 o'clock the fifth, sixth and seventh grades have chapel. We sing songs and say the Lord's Prayer. From 9.10 to 9.35 is B grammar. This is a review of definitions, participles and infinitives. The teacher has us diagram sentences on the board and then explain them. While the A class is having arithmetic the Bs study arithmetic. From 10.00 to 10.35 o'clock we have music. Miss B is the teacher. Then from 10.35 to 11.15 o'clock is A geography. The Bs study spelling. Then comes spelling from 11.15 to 11.30 o'clock. We write the words in blanks or spelling books. The Bs have arithmetic from 11.30 to 12.00. This consists of a review of definitions, the principles to find the area of different things, and the tables of measurement. Sometimes the teacher will give us an example to work on the board. At 12.00 o'clock we are dismissed and go to our dinners.

The first bell rings at 10 minutes past 1.00 o'clock. The second and last bell rings at 1.15 o'clock. When the room is quiet we have roll-call. The A and B class have drawing or general lessons till 1.40 o'clock. We have drawing Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday, and general lessons Thursday and Friday. From 1.40 to 2.05 is A grammar. During this time the

B class study their grammar for the next day. Then the B reading from 2.05 to 2.30 o'clock. The teacher calls on different ones in the class to read. The time from 2.30 to 2.50 is A reading. The Bs study geography. From 2.50 to 3.00 o'clock is writing. The last subject of the day is B geography. This is a review of the world. At 3.30 o'clock we are dismissed.

I have learned part of carpeting, plastering and papering, But I will learn the rest up in the eighth grade.

Mamma has been cleaning the sitting room and dining room this week.

I hope I have written this letter alright. I think I had better close as it is getting late I am getting tired.

The following outline indicates the program of a boy aged 11 in a private school in New York City. It was prepared by one who followed the boy through an entire school day.

Nine o'clock opening exercises. 9.10 to 10, United States History, (Miss H.). The lesson is upon the Constitution of the United States and involves the following questions: For what purpose does the United States need revenue? For what purpose does this school need revenue? Give an example of direct tax. What is an indirect tax? Give an example. What did the strict constructionists believe? How did the interpretation of the Constitution divide the people into two parties? What was the elastic clause? Name some things for which the community should be grateful to Alexander Hamilton. How does the protective tariff protect American goods? (There was in this connection another pertinent question; but I never happened to come across any evidence that the possible abuses of the protective tariff were adequately presented to the children in American schools.)

10 to 10.30, French (Mrs. B.). The teacher puts on the blackboard a colored picture of a Swiss scene. In the foreground is a little house, a stream with a bridge over it, and children playing about. A man is at work plowing; a garden; birds; hens; chickens; in the distance a

castle. The teacher writes in French a series of questions designed to help the children to see what is in the picture. The pupils ask the meaning of some of the words; the teacher answers them in French. The children work eagerly.

10.35 to 11, Music, (Miss Hr.). The children practice for a recital "My heart's in the Highlands," "Spinning Song," "Oh! Country great and glorious."

11.00 to 11.15, recess, during which the children play games in a nearby vacant lot.

11.15 to 11.55, Mental arithmetic (Miss R.). Part of the work was on the basis of the time-honored text book of Warren Colburn; for example: 7 times 7, plus 1, divided by 5, times 10, times 2, divided by 5 equals what? The remainder was correlated with history and with the political environment as follows: What are taxes? For what are taxes used in the United States? Problem: The total expenses of the United States Government in a certain year were \$447,000, of which \$112,000 were expended for war; what per cent was expended for war? A pupil does the work at the blackboard and explains the work as she goes along. Was that money well spent? asked the teacher. "Yes," replied the children without a dissenting voice, "we must defend our country." The per cent expended for the navy and pensions was similarly calculated. The subject of tariff was then considered. What is a tariff? Where is it collected? Does every city have a custom house? What are ports of entry? The terms free list, ad valorem, specific duties, explained. A table of certain customs duties is placed on the board:

Barley 30 cents per bushel.

Blankets 22 cents per pound plus 30 per cent.

Diamonds 60 per cent. (A boy whistles. "Was that an expression of surprise?" The reason for such a high tariff is made plain.)

Glass-plate 8 cents per square foot, etc.

"If barley weighs 48 pounds per bushel,

what would be the duty on 3,500 pounds of barley?" The problem is solved quickly and accurately.

12.00 Grammar (Miss H.). The lesson is on clauses used as subjects and as objects. The children put on the board from their papers sentences prepared at home. The use of clauses is explained by the children. Papers are exchanged, and mistakes put on the board. Those who had no mistakes think of complex sentences and write them at their seats.

12.30 to 1.00 (Mr. J.). Gymnastics and athletics in open field, practice for a contest, sack races, etc. School is dismissed.

For home work the children are to prepare three subjects, spending on them not more than two hours in all. In addition some of the children have at home a piano lesson or a practice period of three-quarters of an hour. One of the boys has his luncheon at 1.20, changes his clothes, plays in the open air from 2.00 to 5.00 (except on dancing school day), practices music from 5.00 to 5.45, studies lessons from 5.45 to 6.30, has supper from 6.30 to 7.00, and between 7.00 and 8.00 studies another half hour, reads, or mulls over his stamp book, or plays a half hour, and so to bed.

It will be noted that the district school boy has spent five and a half hours in school, not counting recess. During this time he has been under the care of one teacher who has divided her time between his class and one or more similar classes into which the school is divided. Two hours and five minutes of his time have been spent in five recitations, three hours and ten minutes in "study"—though it may be doubted whether the boy could put in profitably one hour and fifteen minutes on "The Po and the Apenines." The second boy is under two teachers, and has spent three hours and fifteen minutes in reciting eight subjects. He has spent one hour and fifty minutes in study during school hours. The third boy has spent three hours and forty-five minutes in school, during the whole of which time he

has been engaged in reciting or studying in class under the direction of five different teachers. He has had six different subjects, counting gymnastics; with music and dancing he has had eight subjects and seven teachers. All told, the time spent by him in study and recitation in school and out is five and one-half hours, or fifteen minutes more than the time spent in school alone by the district school boy.

It is evident that such a cross-section does not exhibit fully the character of the curriculum pursued by any of the boys in question. The last-mentioned boy, for example, has on certain days manual training, literature, composition, spelling and penmanship.

In spite of all these forces making for variety in curricula there are forces equally strong that make for unity. Human nature and human life are essentially the same the world over. There is a common heritage of ideals, of human achievements, of sacrifices for humanity. Every great nation has a great literature. Social membership has an identical meaning for every human being. In every civilized community there are trades, occupations, agencies of production and distribution, agriculture, manufactures, commerce, laws, fine arts, philanthropy. Science is a term that knows no geographical limits. The fundamentals of religion and morals are the same for all mankind. If, then, the curriculum is simply the bringing of the outer world into the school room, every curriculum must have the identical elements of religion, history, language and literature, science and mathematics, art and industry. A more detailed presentation of what is today taught in schools along these lines must be reserved until the next article. I wish now, in concluding this one, to touch on the important and neglected question, What subjects and topics already in the curriculum should be omitted?

The history of the common school curriculum during the past generation has

been a history of additions without corresponding subtractions and condensations. It is estimated by a high authority that, with the increase in subjects, in topics, and in detail, the work required of the school boy of the present is double or possibly treble that of a generation ago.

Every new subject and topic introduced has doubtless furnished valid credentials. Some have even so quickened the appetite and enlarged the capacity of the pupil that instead of taking up room they have made more room. This is true of manual training and literature. Both of these have been fought as "fads;" but they have proved that they are able to give such interest in the 3 R's as to pay for the time consumed by them. Mr. Alfred Mosely tersely puts this point, in writing of a certain English school:

Here where so many other things are taught besides reading, the children are found in advance, in reading, of the schools, in the majority of which scarcely anything else is taught. . . . The singular slowness with which the children of our national schools learn to read is in some degree to be attributed to the unwise concentration of the labors of the school on that single object.

The fact remains, however, that expansion and enrichment have not been unalloyed blessings to the American school boy. It has been far easier to get a new subject or topic into the curriculum than to uproot an old subject or topic, however long outgrown. By common consent the curriculum is admitted to be overcrowded, and the children "submerged." The remedy is excision, according to such a criterion as that recently proposed by Professor Frank M. McMurry:

Whatever cannot be shown to have a plain relation to some real need of life, whether it be esthetic, ethical, or utilitarian in the narrower sense, must be dropped.

By way of applying this criterion—to give but a single example—it is proposed to abolish from the arithmetics the subject of percentage and its "cases." The time-honored terms "amount," "differ-

ence," and "percentage" — succulent terms on which every schoolboy in America in the last generation was fed to repletion—are to be stricken from the bill of fare. The "Cases," that once ruled like kings, are to be dethroned. All that is left of their once teeming realm is, according to Professor David Eugene Smith, this pair of petty problems, one of which is straight algebra, and the other plain multiplication:

1. 6 per cent of \$250 is how much?
2. If 104 per cent of x equals \$7.28, what does x equal?

If the standard of "mental discipline"

still obtained, we might never cease teaching "cases," or indeed anything else. Everything teachable affords *some* mental discipline. But when the chief standard becomes, Does this thing meet a need in life? Do "cases" exist out in the world? we are instantly freed from the teaching of what never had existence except in schools, and are freed for the teaching of those useful, interesting, real, and vital matters with which the out-of-school world is filled, and which are clamoring and pressing for admission to the little, yet very real, world of the modern school.

Nature Study

The Evergreens II

By Anna Botsford Comstock

Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University.

CEDARS



ARBOR VITAE

We have two cedars common in New York State, the red and the white.

The White Cedar or Arbor Vitae: This is a common hedge tree, and its flat foliage is very beautiful when examined carefully through a lens. It looks as if it had been pressed with a flatiron. The arbor vitæ grows in wet places, as well as along streams where it makes almost impenetrable forests. In the Adirondacks it grows at an altitude of 3,500 feet.

The Red Cedar: The twigs of this and their surrounding leaves have not been flattened as in the arbor vitæ, but each little twig looks like a braid of green yarn. There are two kinds of leaves on the red cedar, the green ones which you see, and some other pointed needle-shaped leaves, which you feel if you put your hand

This is the fourth of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York. The following articles have already appeared in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Leaves, October; Seed Distribution, November; Evergreens I, December.



BALSAM FIR



NORWAY SPRUCE

against the foliage. The fruit of the red cedar is a bluish berry.

THE BALSAM FIR

The balsam fir is the only native fir tree common in New York State, though the silver fir of Europe is planted more or less in our parks. Whoever has been fortunate enough to have been in camp in the North Woods, and has reposed upon a bed made from the fragrant branches of this tree has something delightful to remember. And those who have not used the branches for a bed may have laid their heads upon pillows filled with the dried leaves of this beneficent and health-giving tree. We have such a pillow, prepared fifteen years ago, which is still very fragrant.

The balsam fir is often planted as a shade tree, and is likely to be found in the yards of farm houses, rising, a black and graceful spire, far above the house top. This fir may be distinguished from the spruce by the leaves, which are flat and thin, and very blunt at the tip, and by the fact that the winter buds are protected by a coat of resin, which makes them look as if they were varnished.

THE SPRUCES

In the mountains of New York State this most valuable tree—the spruce—abounds. There are three species, the white, the black and the red. The black spruce is so called because its foliage massed against the mountain side looks black, whereas the white spruce is much lighter in color, being grayish green. The cones of the white spruce are slender and elongated, being at least twice as long as wide, while those of the black and red species are much thicker in proportion. The red and the black species were for a long time considered one, and are regarded so now by lumbermen. However, the botanists consider them distinct. The cones of the red spruce fall during the first winter, while the cones remain upon the black spruce several years, and this is the chief way of distinguishing them. Birch beer is made from both the black and the red spruce, and chewing gum also; the white spruce has a disagreeable odor.

The spruce has a leaf which is four sided; in cross section it is more nearly diamond shaped than square. The cone

hangs down instead of standing up and matures in one year.

The Norway spruce is planted everywhere, and may be taken as a type for our study. It is common in our parks and planted grounds, and is sometimes used for hedges.

THE HEMLOCK

The hemlock during its youth and middle age is the most graceful and beautiful of all the evergreens, and in its old age it is the most picturesque. There is no prettier sight in all the tree world than a symmetrical, vigorous hemlock, when the new, vivid light green growth tips every twig, making exquisite contrast to the dark dull green of the older foliage. And there is no such picture of old age and loneliness as the old hemlock towering above its fellow trees with its upper branches bare and black extending helplessly to the four winds of heaven. It is a pity that a disease has attacked our hemlocks in the East and is surely though slowly killing all that are mature. It is as if they were discouraged at the wanton destruction of their species by

man and had died rather than suffer the ignominy of the axe.

The Ground Hemlock: This is a low, straggling shrub not more than four or five feet high, which has foliage resembling that of the hemlock, except that the leaves are longer and bright green on both sides. However, it is not a hemlock at all, but a yew, and its fruit is a red berry.

QUESTIONS ON THE ARBOR VITAE

1. Take a twig, remove the leaves and describe their relation to the twig. Draw a bit of the spray showing the shape and arrangement of the leaves. Use a lens for this.
2. Are you acquainted with the arbor vitae as a separate tree in hedges?
3. Describe the cones.
4. How many scales are there on the cones and where are the seeds borne?
5. What is there about the foliage and the way it grows that fits it for a hedge plant?

The Red Cedar

6. Describe the foliage of the red cedar giving the shape of the green leaves, as well as the sharply pointed ones.
7. Is the spray of the leaf four sided or cylindrical?
8. Describe the fruit carefully, giving its color and form.
9. How many seeds are there in each fruit?



GROUND HEMLOCK
Growing against a bank.



WHITE PINE AND HEMLOCK
Note difference in bark.



HEMLOCK

Showing old and young cones.

10. For what is the wood of the red cedar used?

The Balsam Fir

11. If you know the balsam fir describe it.
 12. Where does Canada balsam, the clear gum in which we mount microscopic objects, come from?
 13. Where does it occur on the tree?
 14. How are the leaves arranged on the twigs, that is, do they project in all directions?
 15. When the tree grows in the open is the bole bare for any distance above the ground?
 16. How do the trees grown in the woods differ in this respect from those in the open?

The Norway Spruce

17. What are the shape and length of the leaves?
 18. How many lengthwise ridges has each leaf?
 19. Are the leaves arranged all around the twigs?
 20. How in relation to the twig are the points directed?
 21. What is the shape, size and color of the cone?
 22. Where on the twig is it borne?
 23. Does it hang down or stand up?
 24. Figure or describe a seed.
 25. In the old trees do the twigs stand out

all around the branches or do they hang down?

26. How is this arrangement of the twigs on the branches useful to the tree in its native climate?

27. Do the Norway spruces when standing in the open show any bole below the branches or do the branches grow to the ground?

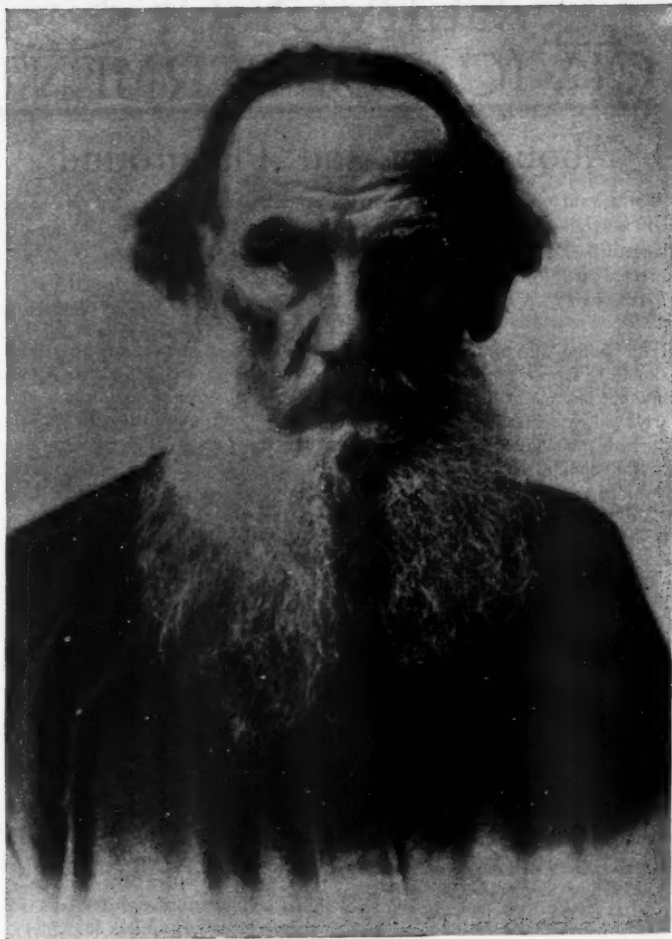
The Hemlock

28. Describe the tree.
 29. Do the branches extend straight out or droop at tips?
 30. Describe the foliage.
 31. Describe or sketch a hemlock cone.
 32. Are the cones borne at the tip or on the side of the branches?
 33. Does the cone mature in one season?
 34. Describe or sketch the seed.
 35. What industry has caused the destruction of the hemlock?
 36. For what parts of building construction is it used?
 37. Name its special value as building timber?

The Ground Hemlock

38. In what direction do the branches extend?
 39. Is there a main stem?
 40. Figure or describe the fruit.
 41. How many seeds does it contain?
 42. Is it edible?

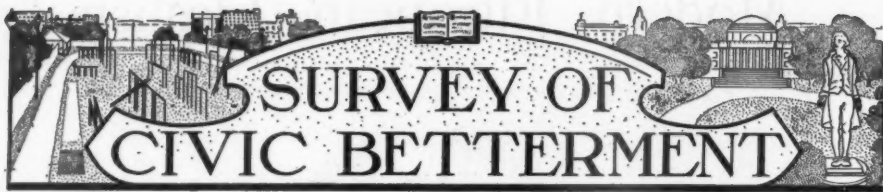
Modern European Idealists



COUNT LEO NIKOLAIEVICH TOLSTOY

Count Leo Nikolaievich Tolstoy is perhaps the most widely known Russian of today. His personality, his teachings, stand out in bold relief against the despotic superstition of his compatriots. Born in 1828, educated at the University of Kazan, commander of a battery in the Crimean War, Count Tolstoy has seen most of the principal changes in his country during the past century. Scholar, novelist, sociologist, reformer, religious mystic, he stands forth for the highest of Slavic ideals. With the abolition of serfdom, he saw the possibility of uplifting the peasantry, and, in their behalf, he has devoted his best effort, living their life, and proclaiming their cause. An enemy to war, he depicts in his "Sevastopol," and in his later works, its horrors. With a philosophical religion of his own, he measures all things by what he considers the standards of Christ—having nothing to do with the idea of militant patriotism, believing rather in a world citizenship on a basis of universal peace. A prolific writer, he has, for over half a century, scattered broadcast his philosophy—wherever men read. Each of his books—novel, drama, study—has a motif, opening to men of all creeds and beliefs a field for earnest thought. In spreading his ethical teachings, he has had to stem a powerful tide of bigotry in his own country. But notwithstanding this, the loftiness of his purpose has challenged the admiration of even his bitterest opponents.

Count Tolstoy's principal works are: "Childhood," "Boyhood," "Youth," "Sevastopol," "War and Peace," "Anna Karenina," "My Confession," "What Is to Be Done?" "The Death of Ivan Ilyitch," "Kreutzer Sonata," "Work while You Have the Light," "The Kingdom of God is Within You," and "What is Art?"



About Play and Playgrounds

"Waterloo was won on the playing grounds of Eton."—*Wellington.*

"The balance wheel of a nation turns on the well-directed play of childhood."—*Miss Alice M. Felke, before National Educational Association.*

"Both in the home and in the school the play spirit should be fostered. The home where father and mother become as little children and play regularly and systematically for an hour or two a day with their boys and girls is a type of what all homes should be. There is no home so rich or so poor that parents cannot through play enter into the lives of their children."—*Miss A. M. Felke before N. E. A.*

"If play is justly a permanent feature in college and university life, there certainly must be a place for it during all the years that precede that period, and yet we find many school-rooms today where the aspect of the teacher is almost funereal, and where to smile, much less to laugh heartily, would be regarded as an offense against good order."—*S. T. Dutton in "Social Phases of Education."*

"The most urgent need of the city child is physical educative work and spontaneous play. . . . Nothing is more antique than the instruction of English boys in the so-called public school. Their play, however, makes men of them. . . . It gives the efficiency to fight their country's battles, to spread her commerce over the whole earth, to rule inferior people to their own good, to found and develop new nations."—*Charles DeGarmo in "Interest and Education."*

"We cannot give all these children homes in the country, we cannot give them all even an outing there; but we can give them playgrounds in the city; a very little plot here and there will do. We have reserved great parks and squares which we permit them to look at and sometimes to venture on. But as playgrounds, these are practically useless; they are accessible to comparatively few. A vacant building lot in the proper district is far more to the purpose. Happy is the boy who lives near one!"—*Frank M. Chapman in St. Nicholas.*

"As between space for playground and space for ornamentation, other things being

equal, there can be but one conclusion held, namely, that games are immeasurably superior to ornamentation."—*E. R. Shaw in "School Hygiene."*

"This study is emphatic in its proof that one purpose of education, one of the aims of the school, is to prepare for *proper employment of leisure moments*. Child life is largely made up of such moments, and in no class of society do the long hours of work (fourteen to fifteen hours per day) of our grandfathers now prevail; as a people we can say as never before, 'our time is our own.' How to use this time is one of the serious problems of today. It will leave its trace in our physical being, in our moral and mental make-up, in national character."—*T. R. Croswell in Pedagogical Seminary.*

"One does not need to be a very profound student of play to discover that play is not the doing of easy things, as some have supposed. . . . Recent careful studies of the biographies of noted men have shown that in most cases they were leaders in play in boyhood and that many of them kept the play instinct all through their lives. Men who have great capacity for play usually have great capacity for work."—*E. A. Kirkpatrick in Review of Reviews.*

"Play is a preparation for work. It soon ceases to satisfy unless it involves an end to be attained—unless, in a way, it becomes work; and it is no less true, that work, in order to be at its best, must have in it some of the charm of play."—*Dr. J. E. Bradley in Review of Reviews.*

"When we reflect on the unavoidable limitations and mechanical routine of a regular calling we see how valuable is the cheering and humanizing effect of play, both physical and mental, and especially of those games which are calculated to strengthen the social tie."—*Karl Groos in "Play of Man."*

"There is nothing so rapidly recuperative for mental fatigue as spontaneous activity; and yet, on the other hand, there is nothing so helpfully educative as the self-activity engendered in play."—*Dr. H. E. Kratz.*

"The most important function of play is to

educate the individual for his life work in a network of social relationships."

"It is the function of the municipal playground to extend the influence of the conscious educational forces beyond the school-room into the very heart of the child's life and help him to adapt himself to city conditions without loss of physical vigor or mental stamina."—D. F. Wilcox in *"The American City."*

"The great lesson of law as a means of freedom is nowhere so well taught as in well-directed and orderly play. In no other place can a child so fully realize for himself the value of law as on the playground. A teacher who can successfully lead children to play happily in accordance with whatever rules are necessary, is not only forming a public sentiment in favor of orderly and fair play, but she is also preparing the children for good citizenship more effectually than she can possibly do in the school room, where the children have not so keen a personal interest in what is being done."—Edwin A. Kirkpatrick in *"Fundamentals of Child Study."*

"What he (the boy) wants is a hard, lively game; something difficult, dangerous, heroic. This he must have as truly as a flower must have air and sunlight. If he cannot get it in one way, it is his virtue and not his vice that he insists on getting it in another. . . . It is the boys whom we call bad because their actions are frequently inconvenient to their elders, who are being true to their own nature, are doing that specific part of the work of self-development which it is their business to do. . . . The trouble . . . arises from the fact that the boy lives in a different world from ours; a world of adventure, of personal courage; the world of the swift-footed Achilles, of the Vikings, of Nimrod, 'a mighty hunter before the Lord'; a world from which our world of humdrum commercial ideals is still invisible. . . . What the boy is after is manliness, and the demonstration of manliness. He is a keen recognizer of truth in this matter, and if it is, in hard and sober fact, more manly to be able to fight hard, run fast, and play a good game of ball than it is to smoke many cigarettes and, in general, to indulge in greater dissipation than his companions, why, the stronger and better thing will win in the public opinion of the boys among whom it has a chance.

"A marked need of the boy of the 'Big Injun' period, as seen on the playground, is the need of leadership. I have spoken of the lack of constructive and organizing power and the disproportionate strength of the critical faculty in boys of this age. In order to keep them doing

anything beyond the desultory criticism of passers by or the tormenting of one of their own number, it seems usually to be necessary to have some teacher or paid leader on the grounds.

"The gang is simply a perverted expression of this spirit (boyhood's 'age of loyalty'). It is the primitive social group, the kindergarten of the future citizen. . . . Give it a chance, on a properly conducted playground, and the gang will soon show its power of producing the baseball or football team, and it will appreciate the opportunity.

"There is no training of the social consciousness more intense than that of these great national games. . . . It is not a question of self-sacrifice, and no boy would ever use such a term in stating the thing to himself. . . . In the football team the boy is coming to his own as a member of the larger social unit.

"Is not this what we want in the citizen? Not that he shall grudgingly, or as a matter of duty, sacrifice himself to the public weal—although that is, perhaps, the best that most of us can, in most public relations, hope to attain; what we want and shall some day see, is the citizen to whom it does not appear as a sacrifice nor a selfdenial that he shall throw himself with his whole weight and spirit into the life of his city and state."—Joseph Lee in *Educational Review*.



ORGANIZATION AND EQUIPMENT OF PLAY- GROUNDS

Two prime requisites of a public playground are (a) an enclosed space and (b) a competent attendant. Enclosure is needed to preserve discipline and for general control of the situation. With an attendant of fair ability to secure regard for the rights of all, and to provide initiative for "something doing," a beginning may be made without equipment.

The essential characteristics of playground helpers, paid or volunteer, are good character, good sense, sympathy, adaptability, love of play, knowledge of some good games, and willingness to follow the policy outlined by the management. The attendants or director may include both employed and volunteer workers though in some cases none are paid for their services; the Christian Asso-

ciation and Turner gymnasiums may be asked for helpers, both junior and senior class leaders having valuable experience in handling groups. Many grade teachers and normal students can direct games—in some cases "cadet" teachers receive their car fare and the experience.

The grounds may be open for certain days, or all the week, for a few hours of the day or from early morning till late at night, during vacation and holidays only or throughout the year. Boys or girls, or both, of all ages may be welcomed at specified hours. Space, income, equipment and helpers will figure in deciding upon the patronage to be accepted.

The beginning may be made by a school, a settlement, a club, the municipality or an interested individual. Elmira, New York, for example, has a well equipped private playground, thrown open to all the lads of the neighborhood.

Beginning, if need be, without apparatus, appliances may be added as finances permit, and the number of patrons make necessary. Care should be taken that every one has space, equipment or leadership for some activity. Nor should there be an excess either of equipment or of personal attention.

"Fancy" apparatus and patented combinations should be avoided. Home made apparatus should follow plans provided by a competent authority.

The following illustrates what can be done in a limited space by careful selection and distribution of apparatus adaptable for differing ages, including benches for a small, though doubtless appreciative adult audience:

Suppose that a city lot 50x80 is available. It should first be graded nearly level and all rubbish removed, leaving the ground safe to play on. An entrance house of light construction may be built near the center, providing shelter for sand boxes or pits, and some means of controlling the entrance and exit. To complete the front, a light frame about 7 feet high, covered with wire netting, may extend to the corners of the lot, and on this can be twined climbing annuals of rapid

growth that will form a screen shutting out curious observers on the street, and if the top is extended over and inward 5 or 6 feet it will form a shady retreat from the hot sun. The sides may be treated as circumstances demand. If they are brick or stone walls, climbers will beautify them; if a rough fence, a wash of light color. A few benches in shady corners should be provided. The apparatus may consist of a long frame with ladders, swings, rings, etc., in the center. At the ends of this frame, lower ones hold see-saws, balance swings and a couple of short swings for little ones. These will entertain 25 or 30 children with ease. At the sides are two round swings or "giant strides," as they are called, from the strides the children make in going round them. These are a never failing source of hearty exercise that will keep another score busy. In the center is a revised edition of "Old Grimes cellar door"—two planks slanting from a central platform. A dozen more will find lots of fun and good balancing exercise on this. Under the shelter, rope or rubber quoits may be played, while in the sand pits the smaller ones build Spanish castles and bombard them to their heart's content. A hundred children can play in this space without crowding. This allows thirty-two square feet for each child, the minimum provided by law in England in connection with every school. The apparatus will cost from \$100 to \$500, according to its construction.

For the older boys and limited space a substantial frame twelve feet high can be arranged with swinging rings, adjustable horizontal bar, inclined ladder, two climbing poles, and sliding poles. If purchased complete this outfit will cost fifty dollars.

A larger outfit requiring the minimum amount of supervision would necessitate for advantageous use a space 60 feet long by about 30 feet wide. The outfit would consist of:

A substantial Georgia pine frame, 16 feet high and 52 feet long, having six 7-foot bays and a 10-foot bay in the center. The base extends out to the footings of the ladders and poles, and is buried one foot in the ground. The frame, base and ladders, etc., form a stiff triangular structure. At the ends are ladders and sliding poles on opposite sides, one acting as a feeder for the other.

In the first two bays from the ends are adjustable vaulting bars. In the two second bays are swings. The third two bays have trapeze bars which, in connection with the two sets of steps form flying swings, a popular device with boys and one which (like the ladder and poles) gives every boy a chance in turn. In the center are three teeter ladders. This frame may be extended or shortened, and at a low cost provides the greatest possible amount of exercise and amusement for the space occupied.

As many swings, teeter ladders, or see saws as desired may be arranged in a continuous line. Bean bags made of strong duck, can be used in many games. Rope quoits are particularly well adapted for playgrounds. Volley ball, a form of hand tennis played with an eight inch ball, is the simplest team game adaptable to any sized space and to all ages but the very youngest. Drinking water without limit for the "unquenchable thirst" of the playground enthusiast, toilet facilities, and as quickly as possible a simple shower bath, should be provided.

"The sand garden or summer playground for little children may be said to center around the sand-box, namely a box like a hot bed (the width of which ought not to exceed ten feet, because if it is wider it becomes difficult to pick a child out of the middle) with a cover which can be locked at night to prevent the sand from being stolen, and which ought," says Joseph Lee, "to fold back to serve as a table to make pies on. Experience shows that the one thing the small child likes to do more than any other is to put sand into a pail and turn it out again."

S. P. McDonald and E. A. Irwin say (in *Charities*):

"Half a dozen or so of our really troublesome boys we gathered into a little group, called them a club, which they promptly named the 'White Stars' and to these boys we stated the necessity of having law and order and fair play prevail. Thereupon they assumed from a very superior point of view, the responsibility of keeping the boys off the swings and

other forms of 'policeman' duty. There were frequent lapses into sin within the ranks of the 'White Stars' themselves and we would often see an offender marched out of the playground by his own friends, sometimes amid hot disputes, and sometimes submissively with a resigned expression of guilt."



PLAYGROUNDS AS SOCIAL CENTERS

With the completion of her playground and park system "uniquely equipped for the pleasure and profit of people of all ages and tastes and some of them to be laid out with rare beauty, Chicago will have the finest park system to be found in any city in the world." J. F. Foster, general superintendent South parks, Chicago, explains in *The Commons* (June, 1904, 9:238-240) that "the small parks or playgrounds in most instances provide a play field about 350 feet long, 250 to 300 feet wide. This ground is to be used by the children and young men for playing any sort of game which can be safely played on this area without much restriction, allowing them to play pretty much as they please. Surrounding this play field will be a granite concrete walk from 16 to 20 feet in width, which will be used by the smaller children for roller skating. Each playground will also have commodious outdoor gymnasiums, both for men and women. These gymnasiums will be provided with the usual apparatus, and, in the case of the men's, a suitable running track will be built. There will also be provided a playground for small children, with giant strides, swings, teeters, and hammocks for the very little ones. In connection with this there will be a children's lawn, where little babies can roll about on the grass under the shade of trees; near this will be a wading pool in which children can wade about and sail little toy boats. Sand courts will also be provided with covered seats in connection therewith, and each of the playgrounds will have a band stand and quite

a commodious concert ground surrounding it for afternoon and evening band concerts.

"There will also be in each of the playgrounds a swimming tank or pool varying in size from 80x50 to 150x75. This pool will be enclosed by the large building which will be erected in each of the playgrounds. This building will have all the sanitary accommodations required for the playground, suitable shower and other baths, dressing rooms for those using the tank, and lockers and dressing rooms for both men and women and boys and girls using the gymnasium. It will also have a large room that will be used as an indoor gymnasium during the winter. Kindergarten provision will also be made in this building for the care of the little ones who come to the park during rainy weather. This kindergarten will also be carried on out of doors when the weather is suitable. In addition, the building will be provided with suitable assembly hall, where people of the community can gather for lectures or musical entertainments, or any amusements which are proper.

"There will be in each building several small rooms which can be used for club rooms for the neighborhood—women's, men's, boys' and girls' clubs. There will also be a place for light refreshments, where children can obtain pure milk and good sandwiches practically at cost. It is expected that the accommodations of this building for the people will be entirely without cost to the persons using it. In each of the playgrounds there will be a considerable area, particularly around the margin, reserved for grass, trees and shrubbery, it being thought that a considerable space could not be better used than in the making of the place attractive by the introduction of such things.

"This, in a general way, describes the scope of the small parks or playgrounds. The larger parks will all be provided with the same accommodations for athletic sports as will be found in the playground, only on a more extensive scale.

"Of course, the larger parks will furnish much greater areas for play and much greater opportunities for being beautified with plantation, lakes, etc."



WHY SOME BOYS ARE "BAD"

In a classification of those arraigned before the Children's Court of Manhattan, Justice Julius M. Mayer thus explains in *Charities* (Nov. 7, 1903, 11:417-8) the large groups of "Mischievous Children:"

Very many children are arraigned because they engage in playing shinney, football, baseball, and other innocent games on public thoroughfares or build bonfires on the asphalt or other pavements. These acts are, of course, innocent in themselves but are prohibited in the interest of the safety of life, limb or property in our crowded streets. In many of these cases the judges find that the children do not know why these acts are prohibited. The child, of course, must play and until the playgrounds of the city catch up with the needs of the child population, children must necessarily use the streets and play those games or their variations which have been known to all children for all time. A fine or commitment to a reformatory is rarely imposed in such cases, but the judge presiding takes great pains to point out why the game, innocent in itself, must not be played in the streets, and the parent is also instructed, with the result that very few boys offend twice in this particular.

Most boys when asked why they should not throw stones or do other mischievous acts which are dangerous answer 'Because I will be arrested,' but are unable to answer the next question, 'Why will you be arrested?' This class of mischief will be reduced to a minimum by the adequate increase of playgrounds where children may have decent amusement which occupies their time and attention. Even in the absence of adequate playgrounds, much can be done by school-teachers and parents teaching simple lessons in practical civics.



PLAYGROUNDS FOR ALL CHILDREN

In most interesting fashion a Chicago conference, while considering juvenile delinquency, agreed that the playground is needed for the children of the avenues and

boulevards as well as the less favored ones of the streets and alleys.

Theory and experience dictate that play space should be available at least in the most crowded quarters of the city, and that organized, supervised play shall be provided for all the children of the city, and of the town as well.

Fundamentally the playground is an educational agency, incidentally it must be a morally preventative factor, and yet more incidentally it should be a source of joy and present pleasure to the otherwise dull lives of a dwarfed and deadened childhood.

Because of the educational aspect of the playground the administration may well be an essential part of the public school system. Even where space and equipment are provided by the park board or other departments of the city, the technical administration should be thoroughly organized and directed under school auspices.

But in many communities the playground, as with other phases of school extension, must come from the outside with the necessary initiative, financing and administration provided by a woman's club, parents' association, business men's club, or young people's society.



FROM MEN WHO KNOW

The following testimonials from St. Louis police officials need no comment, and can be duplicated by like evidence from other cities:

Mathew Kiely, Chief of Police: "From these reports I am convinced that the Civic Improvement League playgrounds are most commendable institutions."

Sergeant Alvin Stangan: "My judgment is that they (the playgrounds) are a good thing, as they keep the small children off the street, where they are most exposed to accidents, keep them from wandering away from home, where they may see and be enticed to commit crime."

Captain Michael O'Malley: "The playgrounds have been of great benefit to the children residing in the neighborhood, and

I consider them a great preventative of juvenile crime and disorder."

The Civic Improvement League of St. Louis claims "that many children have been kept off the streets, accidents have been averted, and the police report a decrease of 50 per cent of juvenile crimes."



THE HOME OR NEIGHBORHOOD SANDPILE

The educational and recreative possibilities of the home sandpile have been realized by all too few parents. Still less has the augmented value of the neighborhood sand garden been understood. A splendidly educative little community may exist at least for a portion of the day if the pile of sand and group of children can be placed under the direction of a kindergarten, or if members of the cooperating families can serve by turns. Several such neighborhood groups might divide the time of a trained kindergarten and so secure competent supervision at nominal expense.



TRANSFORMING A LAKE

A great improvement has been effected in the city of Marysville, California, by the transformation of Ellis Lake, which lies in the heart of the city, from a malodorous slough into a picturesque and delightful sheet of water. Formerly the supply from the natural springs that feed the lake was, at some seasons of the year, insufficient to keep the water pure and wholesome. The lake became unsanitary and a menace to the public health. Now, when the water is low, a fresh supply is admitted from the Yuba river which restores the lake to a normal condition. In consequence, the lake is free throughout the year from unwholesome odors and has not only ceased to be a hindrance to the development of the city but has, instead, become one of its advantages. This improvement was brought about wholly through the efforts of Marysville citizens and is a good illustration of the power and value of a little public spirit in improving

local conditons. The success of the experiment was publicly demonstrated by a display of decorated boats on the lake.



FROM THE FIELD

Facts about the successful introduction of water meters, by the municipal plant, at Cleveland, Ohio, by Edward W. Bemis, and meter experience at Atlanta, Ga., and other cities appear in the valuable report of the proceedings of the American Water Works Association published by the secretary, John M. Diven, Elmira, New York. The meter system is considered the "coming way of selling water."

The United States Department of Agriculture has just issued a valuable little 48 page pamphlet (*Farmers' Bulletin No. 195*) on "Annual Flowering Plants." It is written by L. C. Corbett, horticulturist of the Bureau of Plant Industry, and is intended to be practical, showing by illustration and description how to raise the commonest of our flower plants, and how to select, and arrange them to the best advantage. Although some of the oldest of our decorative flowers are considered, they are treated in a manner that will be new to many who have known them since childhood. By artificial and scientific means, undreamed of results are shown to be possible. Sprouting indoors or in hot houses is explained, with directions as to the transplanting, moisture, soil, temperature, fertilization, etc. Harmony and contrast of color are shown, each plant being allotted its special place in the general scheme of decoration—whether at home, on on the driveway, or at the school.

Frederick W. Lord, city engineer of Hartford, Conn., is the author of a unique handbook of 262 pages entitled "Hartford Municipal Information." The nature of the work is such as to commend it to the attention of the authorities in every city of the country. It is not only a report of the duties and standing of the various municipal departments, but it treats the activities of the city from a historical standpoint. Little matters of information that one might spend days in seeking in the records, are made plain. An instance of this is a list of the obsolete and long forgotten names of streets, a knowledge of which often is valuable in clearing up land titles. Every department and office, as well as the semi-public utilities, is considered, the aim being to show the busy tax payer what he is paying for and how he may secure relief from obnoxious or burdensome city ordinances.

Last spring the Municipal Council of Paris offered prizes for the most artistic window gardens, hoping thus, through the greater amount of plant life in the city, to improve the air by an increased supply of oxygen, and to cultivate the artistic qualities of the people. The result of the competition was a great increase in the number of window gardens and consequent greater health and happiness to the Paris citizens. Why should not some art society in America try a similar experiment in one of our large cities?

The Civic Study Class, conducted under the auspices of the Christian Citizenship Committee of the Philadelphia Christian Endeavor Union, is displaying an active interest in practical social reform. The class announces that its object is, "To study the needs of our city, state and country and learn our duties and opportunities toward correcting existing evils." The first meeting of the class was held November 5, 1904, at which Clinton Rogers Woodruff spoke on "What Shall We Do?" The second meeting, held November 19, had as its subject, "What Women Can Do in Civics." The endeavor of this organization to make its efforts of practical value in social reform is representative of the modern "applied Christianity" which is not satisfied with words alone but feels it must act. Even more significant, however, is the determination to study social conditions before endeavoring to improve them; to find, first, the causes of evils before attempting their remedy.

Professor L. S. Rowe, of the University of Pennsylvania, in a paper read at the Chicago meeting of the National Municipal League, strongly advocated changes in the college courses of study which would make them of more value in the development of citizens. The present language and mathematical studies, declares Professor Rowe, cultivate a critical attitude of mind, which, in social affairs, often destroys the student's efficiency as a worker for reform. The man trained in the classics, but ignorant of contemporary problems, does not have the interest in current affairs that, as an educated man, he should. Professor Rowe finds the remedy in an increased amount of study in civil government, particularly in vital municipal problems. Research work of a practical nature in the study of public utilities in their relation to the city, would, thinks Professor Rowe, have as great an educational value as language and mathematics, and would make a better citizen of the student. His suggestions are in *The School Journal*, Nov. 12, 1904.



CIVIC PROGRESS PROGRAMS

PLAY AND PLAYGROUNDS

These "programs" are intended to provide suggestive outlines for meetings of women's clubs, men's clubs, young people's societies, education associations, parents' clubs, etc., and also serve as reference lists for individual and library use. As a rule only "in print" and fairly accessible publications are mentioned. Instructions for securing the use of most of these publications are given at the end. Fuller lists can be supplied upon application.

Correlation: Appoint some person to outline briefly the inter-relation of the civic topics in the January CHAUTAUQUAN: Playground Movement in Germany; How the American Boy is Educated; Contemporary Psychology; items in Survey of Civic Betterment and other departments.

Summary: Of article on The Playground Movement in Germany, by Henry S. Curtis, in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Definitions: One person or several may give concise but clear statements about the following: Playground, vacation school, gymnasium, sand garden, school garden, kindergarten, sport, pastimes, play, recreation, etc.

Paper: "The Play Spirit." See Play of Man, Karl Groos; Play as a Factor in Social and Educational Reform, E. A. Kirkpatrick, *Review of Reviews*, Aug. '99, 20:192-196; Psychological, Pedagogical and Religious Aspect of Group Games, Luther Gulick, *Pedagogical Seminary*, Mch., '99, 6:135-151.

Reading: Stories of Games and Contests from "Tom Brown's School Days," and recent works intended to picture the spirit of school athletics.

Paper: "The Educational Aspect of Play." See Educational Value of Play and the Recent Play-movement in Germany, J. L. Hughes, *Educational Review*, Nov. '94, 8:327-336; Play as a Factor in Development, Geo. W. Fitz, *American Physical Education Review*, Dec. '97, 2:209-215; Educational Value of Play, Dr. John E. Bradley, *Review of Reviews*, Jan. '02, 25:62-65; Play in Physical Education, G. E. Johnson and others, Proceedings of N. E. A., Washington, 1898, 948-958; Play as a Means of Idealizing and Extending the Child's Experience, Miss Allie M. Felke and others, Proceedings of N. E. A., Washington, 1898, 624-632.

Paper: "Criminal Tendencies of Childhood in Relation to Play Facilities." See Some Criminal Tendencies of Boyhood, Edgar J. Swift, *Ped. Sem.*, Mch. '01, 8:65-91; Chap. 34, Reactions Against the Social Order—Play and Crime, in Psychological Foundations of Education, W. T. Harris.

Paper: "Play and Playgrounds in Other Lands." See Physical Training in English Schools, H. Brown, *Amer. Phy. Edu. Review*, Sept. 1900, 5:246-251; What the City of Braunschweig, Germany, Does for the Physical Training of Her Children, Ernst Harman, *Am. Phy. Edu. Review*, Sept. '96, 1:33-42; English Experience in Providing the Poor with Parks, Gardens, Gymnasias, and Playgrounds, The Earl of Meath, Proceedings Am. Phy. Edu. Association, 1893, 29-34.

Paper: "Present Status of the Playground Movement." See Playgrounds, by Henry S. Curtis, Report of Commissioner of Education for 1903; The Playground Movement in Germany, Henry S. Curtis, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, January, 1905; Constructive and Preventive Philanthropy, Joseph Lee; American Municipal Progress, Charles Zueblin; reports of various playgrounds (these can be borrowed from the Bureau of Civic Coöperation, Chicago).

Stories: "Bits of Human Interest From the Playground." See local playground workers; books and articles by Jacob Riis; *Outlook* articles by L. W. Betts; Loose Threads in a Skein in "magazine numbers" of *Charities*.

Assigned Readings: "Playground Plans, Possibilities and Problems." Give references to different members for brief reports in the meeting: Word as to Winter Playgrounds, Joseph Lee, *Charities*, June 4, '04, 12:564; Days of Cold Snaps and Thaws on a Park Playground, S. P. MacDonald and E. A. Irwin, *Charities*, June 4, '04, 12:591-594; Need of After School Care for Children Over Six Years of Age, A. A. Tenney, *Charities*,

May 14, '04, 12:516-517; Social Extension of a Great Park System, J. F. Foster, *Commons*, June, '04; Playground Self-Government, Arthur Leland, *Charities*, June 4, '04, 12:586-590; "Health Show," L. V. Robinson, *Charities*, Aug. 6, '04, 12:812-815; Juvenile City League, W. C. Langdon, *Charities*, Sept. 10, '04, 12:922-926.

Report: A previously appointed committee of one or more persons should report, using a map if practicable, upon existing local playgrounds, and point out possibilities of extension, or suggest strategic locations as the beginnings of a new system of playgrounds.

Discussion: "What Can We Do?" See suggestions under this caption following these programs. Appoint a leader, and possibly arrange for several persons to speak of particular points.

Bibliographical: Report on Reading References about Play and Playgrounds in the Local Public Library. Endeavor to interest the audience in this literature and give directions for securing it easily.

Address: "Work vs. Play, or the Play Spirit in the Work of Life." See Study of the Boyhood of Great Men, A. H. Yoder, *Ped. Sem.*, Oct., '94, 3:154-156. How to get Strong, Wm. Blakie; biographies of Gladstone, Lincoln, and others.

Open Discussion: One or more of the following topics (adapted from Fundamentals of Child Study, E. A. Kirkpatrick) may be freely discussed with brief closing remarks by some one appointed in advance: (a) "Why do brain workers engage in manual labor and city people go to the country for recreation?" (b) "Why is a mason piling up brick, working, and a child piling up blocks, playing?" (c) "Is any of your work really play to you?" (d) "What games and sports are especially valuable in preparing for work, and why?" (e) "What amusements as distinguished from play, have a value, if any?"

Local Investigation: The entire town or a specified district may be the subject of a report by one or several persons. What private playgrounds? What public playgrounds? Are they located to serve all portions of the town? How many square feet of play space to each child in the school yards? Are these equipped or directed wisely? Are children of all grades on the grounds at the same time? Are children kept in at recess as punishment? Do the school people and city officials realize need of better play facilities? What localities are in special need? Cannot at least arrangements be made for flooding a few vacant lots for skating? What sites recommended for playgrounds? etc.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

For periodicals address *Pedagogical Seminary*, Worcester, Mass.; *Mind and Body*, Milwaukee, Wis.; *American Physical Education Review*, 420 West 160th street, New York.

Joseph Lee, 101 Tremont St., Boston, is at the head of the recreation department of the American Civic Association, and is a notable exponent of the playground movement.

For Gymnasium Director's Pocket Book, list of normal and summer schools of physical training (including Chautauqua School of Physical Education), manuals and books of

rules, popular and technical periodicals, etc., enclose return postage with inquiry to Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Ave., Chicago.

For the purchase of lantern slides or photographs, and access to a wealth of reference material, address American Institute of Social Service, 287 Fourth Ave., New York.

The publications and conventions of the American Physical Education Association, 420 West 160th St., New York, are of considerable value to the professional and lay worker and the student.

For lectures, for traveling exhibit of photographs and plans, for plans and specifications for grounds and equipment, for organization of the playground and solution of administrative problems, loan of publications, etc., address Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Ave., Chicago.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

See Parks, Playgrounds, Squares, etc., in Bibliography of Municipal Problems and City Conditions, R. C. Brooks.

See Play, Playgrounds, etc., in *Readers' Guide, Poole's Index*, etc.

See Magazines of the Week in current issues of *Charities*.

See Partial Bibliography of Civic Progress, in annual "civics number" of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Bibliography, *Charities*, April 2, '04, 12:358-360. Serviceable for references to reports from different cities.

Organization of a System of Public Playgrounds, and Bibliography of the Playground Movement, Arthur Leland. Some valuable suggestions about organization and management.

Playgrounds, H. S. Curtis, in Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1903. A concise, general survey, accompanied by a similar article on vacation schools.

Jahrbuch für Volks und Jugendspiele. 1892-1904.

Special Reports on Educational Subjects for Great Britain. Contain the following valuable articles: Higher Schools for Girls in Germany, vol. IX, p. 207; The School Journey, vol. I, p. 510; Schools in the Rhineland, vol. IX, p. 405; Elementary School Code, vol. I, p. 468; also under various titles in vol. III.

Secondary School System of Germany. Bolton.

German Schools. Russell.

Play of Animals. Karl Gross.

Mother Play. Froebel.

Education of Man. Froebel.

Schreiber Gardens. Leipzig. In *Current Literature*, vol. XXV, p. 385 (1899).

Report of the Commissioner of Education. Playgrounds and Vacation Schools in Germany. 1899-1900.

Children Out of School Hours. L. W. Betts. *Outlook*, 75:209-16 (Sept. 26, '03).

Playgrounds for City Schools. J. A. Riis. *Century*, 48:657-666 (Sept. '94).

Movement for Small Playgrounds. *American Journal of Sociology*, 4:159-170 (Sept., '02).

City Playground. F. M. Chapman. *St. Nicholas*, 18:609-616 (June, '91).

WHAT CAN WE DO?

Encourage local libraries to secure additional publications upon play, playgrounds, and games.

Volunteer some regular service to a playground, boys' club, etc., as a leader in games, or at least as a sympathetic friend and counselor.

If no playground exists invite the aid of a half dozen or so representative men and women who will doubtless need to be patiently informed as to the need of them. Conferences of this group will make clear the best starting point and the line of campaign in your community. In the meantime correspondence as suggested below will enable you to submit definite plans. In the very beginning consult frankly and fully with the school authorities.

Prepare a careful, conservative statement of arguments for playgrounds in general and of any particular local needs, sending copies to editors, ministers, city officials, women's clubs, and other influential quarters.

Apply to any reputable local gymnasium for information and aid. Ask for help from among the volunteer class leaders. The Y. M. C. A. physical education methods are especially adapted to playground needs.

Seek the discussion of playground topics by women's clubs, church societies, business associations, etc.

Manual training classes can make considerable equipment for the playground. In some cities labor unions have contributed skilled service. In other cases relatives and friends of the children have given time and skilled labor. See Junior Citizens' League department in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York.

Be faithful and intelligent in upholding the canons of "clean sport." Many lapses from the highest ethical standards begin in ignorance. The local Y. M. C. A., if member of the A. L. N. A. will be a safe guide. In any case address Amateur Athletic Union, J. E. Sullivan, Secretary, New York, for information about athletic meets and standards.

Public and Sunday School teachers may coöperate by the discussion of the ethics of the playground and the meaning of "clean sport."

Helpful correlation may be secured between friends of the playground and enemies of child labor.

Likewise juvenile court and playground advocates should plan a common campaign.

Secure from Columbia University, New York, information about the new profession of play supervisor. See "Profession of Play Supervisor," *Current Literature*, Jan. '04, 36:91-92.

Send a postal addressed to Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, telling whether there is any public or private playground, sand garden, play supervisor, etc., in your community, so that exchange of actual experiences may be obtained.

Does it appear that too much is asked of those who take up this movement? Nowhere may one find surer application of the truism that "what is worth doing at all is worth doing well." Better wait for leaders to arise with the spirit and the time to work wisely than to start wrong or to mismanage in the early stages.

News Summary and Current Events Programs

DOMESTIC

November 1.—Strike among the hoisting engineers, on account of a cut in wages, closes most of the Illinois coal mines.

2.—On estimate of Real Estate Board of the city the population of Chicago is estimated to be over 2,834,048. The Erie Railroad is reported to have purchased the Pere Marquette system, paying \$75,000,000.

5.—The hulk of the battleship *Maine* has been purchased by an amusement concern and will be placed on exhibition at Coney Island.

8.—In national elections Roosevelt and Fairbanks are overwhelmingly endorsed, carrying every Republican and doubtful state besides Missouri and one vote in Maryland. Democrats carry southern states and elect governors in Massachusetts, Missouri, Minnesota and Colorado. The Socialists receive 600,000 votes.

9.—Transactions on the New York stock exchange aggregate 2,370,000 shares.

10.—Governor Peabody of Colorado announces intention of contesting election of Governor-elect Adams, alleging fraud.

13.—Steamship companies agree to raise rates of steerage passengers to the United States from continental Europe.

14.—Heavy storm along the Atlantic coast destroys much property and cuts communication with New York and other eastern cities. Philip Weinseimer, New York labor leader convicted of extortion, is sentenced to prison. Eugene Ware, commissioner of pensions, resigns.

15.—John Morley, M. P., visiting in this country, in a speech before the New York Chamber of Commerce, prophesies an alliance of all English-speaking nations.

17.—Secretary Taft starts for Panama for the purpose of conciliating the people with the United States. Colonel Frank J. Hecker resigns from Panama Canal Commission. American Federation of Labor in San Francisco sends to committee a proposition for a new central labor body in Chicago. The state of Minnesota begins mandamus proceedings to compel the Great Northern railway to submit to an examination of its books.

18.—American Federation of Labor in San Francisco votes \$25,000 a week for three weeks for the relief of the Fall River mill strikers. Secretary Shaw issues a call on the national banks for \$26,000,000 of the government deposits before March 15. National Founders' Association makes new shop rule which is antagonistic to many of the principles of trade unionism.

19.—Statue of Frederick the Great presented to United States by Emperor William, is unveiled at army war college in Washington. Three election officers are fined and sentenced to jail by Colorado supreme court for substituting ballots.

20.—Archbishop Agius, new papal delegate to the Philippines, arrives in America.

21.—Socialists in American Federation of Labor convention attack Gompers and Mitchell who are, however, supported by the delegates. President Roosevelt appoints Francis E. Leupp commissioner of Indian affairs to succeed William A. Jones, resigned.

22.—Secretary Hay and Baron von Stern-

burg sign an arbitration treaty between America and Germany. Disturbances in connection with the moulders' strike in Cincinnati result in the arrest of several unionists and the president of the national moulders' union.

23.—Arbitration treaty between the United States and Portugal signed in Washington.

24.—Lake Bluff site, near Chicago, is selected for a naval training station on the great lakes. At a conference of western Democrats in Indiana there is a general demand for Bryan as a leader.

25.—Lieutenant-General Chaffee, in his annual report declares the absence of the army canteen has a pernicious effect.

26.—Samuel Gompers is reelected president of the American Federation of Labor. The directors of Union Theological Seminary, New York, vote unanimously to abolish the requirement that its faculty and officers need subscribe to the Westminster confession of faith.

27.—Secretary Taft arrives at Colon and meets President Amador and cabinet.

28.—Wallace Downey, New Jersey ship-builder, makes profit sharing offer to unionist employees.

29.—New York State court of appeals declares labor statute unconstitutional which prohibits a contractor from employing his men more than eight hours a day on city, county or state work.

30.—Joseph Leiter of Chicago and his attorney, Henry R. Platt, are indicted at Pinckneyville, Illinois, on the charge of sending men under armed guard through Perry County without the consent of the governor. Rear-Admiral Davis is appointed the American member of the international court that is to pass upon the English-Russian dispute concerning the Baltic fleet episode.

FOREIGN

November 1.—Pope Pius X is reported to have a serious attack of gout and rheumatism.

2.—Russian attack on Oku's army on Shakhe river is disastrously repulsed. Vice Admiral Rojestvensky is promoted by the Russian admiralty, notwithstanding his error in firing upon the English fishing boats.

3.—Japanese reported to be slowly capturing the outlying defenses of Port Arthur. Liberals win an overwhelming victory in the Canadian elections, continuing Sir Wilfrid Laurier in power.

7.—Despite violent attack from its opponents, the Italian elections result in overwhelming victory for the government. Cuban congressional session opens. Japanese, in desperate assault on Port Arthur, lose 1,100 killed.

12.—General Kuroki is reported to have been killed by a shell before Port Arthur, October 4. It is reported that Canada will place retaliatory duties on her exports to this country, in an attempt to force a reciprocity treaty.

14.—Japanese make fierce attack on Port Arthur, but after some success, are repulsed with heavy loss. Count Cassini, Russian ambassador to Washington, announces that intervention to stop the war is useless. The Vatican accuses France of bad faith in breaking the concordat.

15.—General André, French minister of war, resigns on account of attacks, and rumors are

current that other members of the cabinet will follow.

16.—News from Port Arthur announces that General Stoessel is determined to fight till the last and no offers to surrender will be considered. The Russian destroyer *Rastoropny*, to avoid capture by the Japanese, is blown up by her crew at Chefoo.

17.—Premier Von Koerber's attempt to explain the Innsbrück riots in the Austrian parliament is met by a hostile demonstration from German members. Sixty thousand fresh troops are landed to reinforce Oyama.

18.—Innsbrück affair results in attempts to incite reservists in Italian towns to riot, and a movement to make a demonstration against the Austrian embassy in Rome is frustrated by troops.

19.—Representatives of the *zemstvos* meet secretly at St. Petersburg and adopt seven out of ten sections of a memorial which practically recommends the establishment of a representative body as a part of the government, freedom of the press, and equal rights for peasants. The Italian government agrees to take part in The Hague peace conference proposed by President Roosevelt, and directs its ambassador at Washington to sign an arbitration treaty with the United States.

20.—Representatives of the *zemstvos* hold another session at St. Petersburg and adopt three remaining paragraphs of the memorial. Premier Tisza encounters hostile demonstration in streets of Budapest.

21.—Representatives of the Russian *zemstvos* adopt a declaration favoring the election of a body to frame the laws of the empire; they urge, also, a general amnesty for political

prisoners. Da pass is taken by the Japanese. Hague court of arbitration begins hearings on the dispute between Japan, Great Britain, France and Germany, as to the Japanese tax on houses in the foreign concessions.

22.—The *zemstvo* convention modifies its memorial in behalf of popular government by making it an expression of hope.

23.—Sortie by Port Arthur garrison is repulsed. Russian plea for a constitutional assembly is submitted to the minister of the interior, who will transmit it to the emperor.

24.—A division of the Russian second Pacific squadron arrives at Port Said.

25.—The Tsar sends for a deputation of *zemstvo* representatives and shows sympathy with their reform project.

27.—Ten thousand socialists make demonstration against the government in Vienna. Japanese begin general attack on the forts north and east of Port Arthur.

30.—Japanese capture 203 meter hill at Port Arthur after a desperate battle. Russia refuses to attend peace conference until the present war is ended.

OBITUARY

November 18.—Ex-Judge Thomas A. Moran, of Chicago, dies suddenly in New York.

19.—Colonel W. C. P. Breckenridge at Lexington, Kentucky.

21.—General Louis P. di Cesnola, director of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, in New York.

29.—Mme. Janauschek, the famous actress, in the Actors' Fund Home on Long Island.

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

DOMESTIC

Roll-call: Answered by naming the most important event of the year 1904 in the United States; give brief reasons for selection made.

Papers: (a) Progress of the United States in Governing Dependencies; (b) The Problem of the Solid South; (c) Report on American Federation of Labor convention (begun in San Francisco, Nov. 14); (d) Character sketches of new governors of states: Frank W. Higgins, New York; Joseph W. Folk, Missouri; Charles S. Deneen, Illinois; W. L. Douglas, Massachusetts; John A. Johnson, Minnesota, etc.

Reading Prospectus: What Features Especially Worth While Reading are announced by the magazines for the year 1905. A careful analysis of these announcements will be of no little value to busy people.

Readings: (a) From "Radium and Its Products," Sir William Ramsey, *Harper's* for December; (b) From "The Rise of the Tailors," Ray Stannard Baker, *McClure's* for December; (c) From "The American Consul: a New Type," James C. Monaghan, *Booklovers* for November; (d) From "Work of the National Civic Federation," Ralph M. Easley (Chairman Ex. Council), *Harper's Weekly*, Nov. 26; (e) From "Our State Legislatures," Samuel P. Orth, *Atlantic* for December; (f) From "The United States and the World's

Peace Movement," Walter Wellman, *Review of Reviews*, December.

Discussion: The President's Message—Two speakers review what he did say; two point out of what he did not say; one of each speaking in approval, the other in criticism.

FOREIGN

Roll-call: Answered by naming the most important foreign event of the year 1904; give brief reasons for selection made.

Papers: (a) Church and State in Italy; (b) The Zionist Movement; (c) War as an Argument for Peace; (d) Signs of Social Progress in the First Years of the Twentieth Century; (e) The World's Death Roll 1904. Address: Reform in Russia.

Readings: (a) From "England and the Industrial Revolution," F. A. Ogg, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, January, 1905; (b) From "What Port Arthur Means to Japan," Adachi Kinnosuke, *Review of Reviews*, December; (c) From "Recollections of a Diplomat," Andrew D. White, *Century*, November; (d) From "With Kuroki in Manchuria," Frederick Palmer; (e) From "Europe Talks of Roosevelt," *Public Opinion*, December; (f) From "Coöperative Industries," Mary R. Cranston, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, December.

War Report: Progress of the Russo-Japanese conflict during the month.

Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for 1904-05 beginning with September, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

This brief course offers to individuals a means of making the time spent in reading count for something during the year. It is planned to give a background, a standard of judgment, power of discrimination, sense of proportion, in a word education along lines of present-day importance, that will make all one's reading of use to him.

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

One does not need to become a member of any organization to get the benefit of this "group plan" of reading. There is no membership fee and the course is offered to individual readers complete in the magazine for the year.

RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

Persons will be entitled to a certificate who have read the Spare Minute Course serials named above. These will be known as "Specified Reading." For reading the other "recommended" serials and departments in the magazine a seal on the certificate will be awarded.

SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course is especially adapted to the use of clubs and societies. It should be particularly helpful to clubs of men, school literary societies, church young people's societies, organizations in shops and stores, and other groups of busy people with few opportunities and limited time.

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

Summary: Epitomize article on "England and the Industrial Revolution," by F. A. Ogg, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for January.

Discussion: How Has the Industrial Revolution in the United States compared with the Industrial Revolution in England?

Readings: (a) From article on "The Factory System" in "Encyclopedia of Social Reform;" (b) From books listed in bibliography accompanying Mr. Ogg's article in January *CHAUTAUQUAN*; (c) From "Industrial Evolution of the United States," Carroll D. Wright; (d) From "Industrial Evolution of Society," Richard T. Ely.

Symposium: Germany as an International Competitor for Trade. Her Diplomacy, Naval and Military Establishments, Technical Education and Trade Methods.

Reading: From "Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck," by Wolf von Schierbrand, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for January.

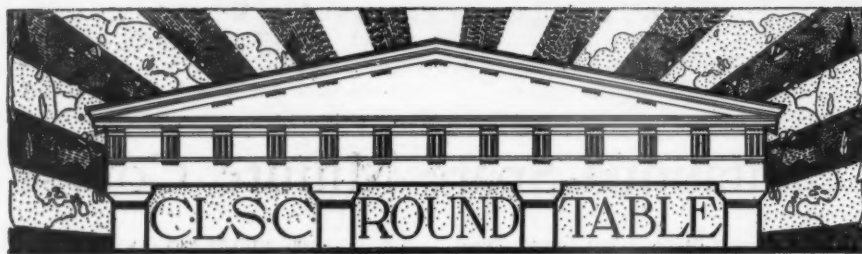
Paper: The Function of Play and Playgrounds in Modern Civilization.

Reviews: (a) Of article on "Contributions of Psychology to Social Welfare," by James R. Angell; (b) "Changes in the Common School Curriculum," by Walter L. Hervey, both in January *CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Address: The Psychology of Revivals, Campaigns and Mobs.

Additional program material may be found in "Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," etc., on other pages of this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.



COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

JESSE L. HURLBUT, D. D.

LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.

HENRY W. WARREN, D. D.

J. M. GIBSON, D. D.

EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.

JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D.

WM. C. WILKINSON, D. D.

W. F. KANE, D. D.

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

THE CHANCELLOR'S NEW YEAR'S GREETING

Dear Fellow Chautauquans:

New resolves ought to sing their song on New Year's morning. New Year resolves should be radical as they affect motive and force of will; and they should be progressive as they express advancing ideals. These radiant resolves of a New Year's morning should improve, even in a material way, immediate environment—the room we sleep in, the room we eat in, the room we work in. Worthy purpose, ardent desire and noble enthusiasm should embody themselves in facts of form, color, combination—a new picture, a new arrangement of old pictures, a new book, a new statuette or bust, a new touch of beauty here and there—the soul's growth revealed in the externals we control. Are not our belongings and our surroundings part of ourselves? Do they not give weight to our influence. Do they not extend our personality? Do they not increase for good or ill the power we wield in the world? It does make a difference how one dresses, how one arranges his room. Harmony in lines, colors and adjustment do tell on character as they tell of character.



CHANCELLOR
VINCENT

Let us then begin the new year by extending our powers of personality into

the material environment we dominate. Thus we "spread ourselves," not in egotistic display and self promotion, but in a blessed and happy extension of influence. Our world enlarges, our talents multiply, our work becomes more varied and permanent. Therefore let the next December sun set on a fairer, worthier, richer realm of our personal influence than its first beams at the dawn of the new year—a face more radiant with good cheer; other lives worthier because of our example and efforts; walls more suggestive of critical thoughtfulness, culture and taste; shelves enriched and burdened with worthier literature; light and shadow, color of carpet and tint of ceiling quietly telling of the increase of influence, delicacy of insight, and artistic sensitiveness. If "walls have ears," and if spoken words, the unsyllabled soliloquies and the heart's deepest desires, become both real and immortal—then shall the record of the year show to God and His angels (and the wisest human observer shall not be without power of witness) how much has been wrought by a holy purpose, a living faith, a resolute will, not alone in the secret recesses of the spirit, in all the visible realm, touched and dominated by an earnest personality, but also in many other human lives made brighter, stronger, worthier through our affection, fidelity and example.

A happy New Year to all the readers of the C. L. S. C.

JOHN H. VINCENT,
Indianapolis, Ind., January 1, 1905.

THE NEW HALL IN THE GROVE

These glimpses of the new Hall of Philosophy at Chautauqua show the extent of the work done up to the present time. One view is taken from the west looking across to the stairway which leads down into the grove and to the Golden Gate. The gateway has been moved a few feet to the north of its old position, bringing it directly opposite Merrill Avenue so as to give a clear vista from the Grove through the gateway down to the lake. Some idea of the beauty of the new building can be gained from this imperfect view of the graceful balustrade and the rostrum. The spaces in the floor which are boarded over are designed for class tablets to be assigned to each class from 1882 to 1932. This plan was accepted with enthusiasm by the classes last summer. Fifty classes may thus have a share in the building, the last tablet being set in its place on the Golden Anniversary of the C. L. S. C. Special provision is also to be made for recognition of the first gift to the new Hall, made by the "Hope" Circle, of Providence, Rhode Island, in 1884. Twenty years ago! As every member of the C. L. S. C.



APPROACH OF NEW HALL OF PHILOSOPHY,
CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

will want to have a share in this historic building, three possible ways of making gifts are suggested: First, individual

gifts. The building has been divided into units and every individual giver may feel that he is responsible for some part of the structure. A full list of such units can be secured from the office at Chautauqua. Second, class gifts. Many of the classes have subscribed for columns. Some of them have raised all the money needed



FLOOR OF THE NEW HALL OF PHILOSOPHY,
CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

for their columns and are putting additional class gifts into the floor tablet. Members who want their contributions credited to a particular class may mention the fact, and the amount will be added to the fund of that class. Third, circle gifts. The pavement of the terrace surrounding the Hall has been divided into ten-dollar squares. Some of these have already been taken and it would be a very happy result if the entire pavement could represent gifts from the circles. The Hall is built of material which will stand for centuries. It is the center of a great movement which has brought higher ideals into tens of thousands of homes. It is being built by the gifts of great numbers of people and any amount whatever is of importance. In order that the Trustees may go forward with the building, promptness on the part of all Chautauquans will be appreciated. Write to the President of the Chautauqua Board

of Trustees, Dr. W. H. Hickman, Chautauqua, N. Y., for further particulars, or send your contribution stating how you want it credited. A considerable sum is still needed before the beautiful building can be completed.



APPRECIATIVE WORDS FROM GIVERS

Many of the letters accompanying gifts to the Hall show the affection with which Chautauquans look upon the building. One writes



BROWNING'S LONDON RESIDENCE, 1861-1887

Where he resided twenty-five years after the death of his wife.

From "Robert Browning," by James Douglass. James Pott & Company.

"Should I be able later, I will gladly contribute further to the institution whose welfare I have greatly at heart." Another says of her gift, "I sincerely wish it could be increased many times, but hope that a number of smaller amounts will serve the same purpose as larger sums by fewer givers. Chautauqua has indeed been a help to me." A member of the "Pioneer Class," whose home was near the Hall writes: "My husband and I spent twenty summers there. He entered into rest in 1902 and I am left alone with limited means. My husband was in his ninetieth year. I am eighty-four. We loved Chautauqua. Please accept the enclosed as evidence of my continued interest in my beloved class."

THE "BROWNING" CLASS OF 1905

"A man's reach should exceed his grasp."

How many members of 1905 are familiar with Browning's "Andrea del Sarto," the poem from which the class motto is taken? If you don't know it, suppose you get your Browning and look it up. You haven't a Browning? Then let us suggest some Browning literature for you. There is, first, a little twenty-five cent volume of selections from Browning edited with notes and published by the Macmillan Company. This contains many of the best known shorter poems and will lead you gently up to the more rugged paths of Browning wisdom. The title of this book is "Browning's Shorter Poems." The only complete edition of the poet's work in one volume is the Cambridge Browning, good clean print and very satisfactory, published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., for three dollars. The Camberwell edition, T. Y. Crowell & Co., is to be commended because the volumes, of which there are twelve, are small, light in weight, filled with notes and sold separately for seventy-five cents.

Many of the class will find great pleasure in owning a copy of the charming little year book entitled "Beautiful Thoughts from Robert and Elizabeth Browning," published by James Pott & Co., for seventy-five cents. They will thus become familiar by daily reading with some of Browning's most helpful thoughts, and, as the source of each quotation is given, they will find that these readings frequently lead to further study of the poems. Might it not be a good plan to read one poem of Browning's each week from now until the close of the class year? For the next five weeks beginning with January first we suggest: Andrea del Sarto, Abt Vogler, Saul, The Statue and the Bust, and The Lost Leader.



THE CHAUTAUQUA EXHIBIT AT ST. LOUIS

All Chautauquans will be interested in the following letter from the Office of the

Director of Education and Social Economy of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition Commission for the State of New York:

I am pleased to announce that the International Jury has awarded a grand prize to the Chautauqua Institution in recognition of the advanced work which it is doing in the field of education. Permit me to congratulate the Institution upon the recognition thus accorded to it.

Very truly yours,

D. M. ELLIS.



A SHAKESPEARE GAME

"Celerity is never more admired than by the negligent."

Do you know which of Shakespeare's characters is responsible for this wise sentiment? If you do not, the Shakespeare Club, of Camden, Maine, is ready to enlighten you! This enterprising club has achieved distinction through the seemingly simple process of trying to do good work and then letting its light shine. The members have embodied some of the results of their study in a game which has already reached its sixth edition, and has received the approval of eminent literary authorities. The game consists of sixty cards, each containing a half dozen or more quotations and questions upon a single play or upon some Shakespearean character. The cards are most tasteful in appearance. The type is clear and the tiny picture of the Camden mountains upon the reverse side of each card does honor to the birthplace of the game. This is a capital game for Chautauqua Circles and households to own, for unlike some other

games of amusement it is never old or out of date. Boys and girls are constantly growing up to whom such a form of diversion becomes an important part of their education, and we fancy that few, even of the "grown-ups" who try it for the first time, will be able to answer the questions offhand. The game can be secured from the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y., for fifty cents. Chautauquans have a peculiar interest in this literary enterprise as the Secretary of the Shakespeare Club is also a graduate of the C. L. S. C., Class of 1900.



NOTES

By an accidental omission in the October CHAUTAUQUAN, the address of the Frances Farrar Company which furnishes stereopticon slides, was not given. It is Steinway Hall, Chicago, Ill.

The words "CHAUTAUQUA QUARTERLY" on the title page of the membership book have led to the question whether the membership book is issued four times a year. To this we reply that the present book mailed at the beginning of the course is the complete book for the year. It forms one of a series of "QUARTERLIES" issued by Chautauqua Institution at intervals during the year.

"The States General" of Erckmann-Chatrain has proved such a fascinating introduction to the story of the French Revolution that our readers are anxious to secure the three other volumes included under the general title of "The Story of a Peasant." These three books, "Citizen Bonaparte," "The Country in Danger," and "Year One of the Republic" are published in England, but orders for them will be filled by the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y., for \$1.25 per volume. Seven other historical tales by Erckmann-Chatrain are published in this country and these also can be secured through the Chautauqua Press for \$1.25 each. They are "The Blockade of Phalsburg," "The Conscript," "Friend Fritz," "The Invasion of France in 1814," "Madam Therese," "The Plebescite" and "Waterloo."



OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR FEBRUARY

FEBRUARY 3-10—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck.

Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Guizot and Fourier.

FEBRUARY 10-17—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Social Progress in Europe.

Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Thiers.

FEBRUARY 17-24—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Social Progress in Europe. Reread.

Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Gambetta.

FEBRUARY 24-MARCH 3—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: German Master Musicians.

Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Victor Hugo.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

A very useful little volume which throws much light on the period of English History discussed by Mr. Ogg in this and next month's reading is "English Social Reformers," by Gibbins. It is one of a series of University Extension Manuals published by Methuen & Company of London, and can be secured through any book dealer. It is a small, inexpensive volume and Circles which are working up libraries will find it a good book to add this year. Circles which can draw on large libraries will find Traill's "Social England" a mine of valuable information given in most entertaining style. Volumes V and VI deal with the period which we are studying. This stage of English social progress is full of striking and dramatic contrasts, and Circles and readers will find it well worth while to use their library facilities to the utmost. Green's "History of England" and Larned's "History for Ready Reference" and Warner's "Library of the World's Best Literature" will all prove helpful.

FEBRUARY 3-10—

Review of Reading Journey article.

Roll-call: Legends relating to different German cities as embodied in German poetry (see Longfellow's "Poems of Places," the two volumes of the series on Germany); or Answers to Search Questions and other items regarding the city government of Hamburg (see New International and other encyclopedias).

Reading: The story of "The Victual Brothers" from "The Hansa Towns," or Lowell's poem, "An Incident of the Fire at Hamburg," also from "Playgrounds in Germany," in this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, or from "German Life in Town and Country," on "German Pastimes."

Review: Article on "Hamburg's New Sanitary Impulse," by Albert Shaw. *Atlantic*, 73: 787 (June, 1894). (This is a remarkably interesting article showing how Hamburg learned her lesson from the cholera scourge in 1892.)

Brief Papers: Klopstock and his influence upon Germany (see histories of German literature especially that by Kuno Francke). Lessing and his life at Hamburg.

Reading: The story of Minna von Barnhelm with selections from the play (see "Studies in German Literature," one of this year's required books. The parts should be assigned to different members).

FEBRUARY 10-17—

Review of article on Social Progress.

Short Papers: On Robert Owen, Richard

Oastler and John Howard (see "English Social Reformers," encyclopedias, etc.).

Reading: Selections from Goldsmith's "Deserted Village."

Book Review with Selections: "All Sorts and Conditions of Men." Walter Besant.

Roll-call: Brief oral reports on how England was affected by the French Revolution in the case of (a) Burke, (b) Pitt, (c) Fox, (d) price of food, (e) new styles of dress, (f) humanitarian schemes. (See Traill's "Social England," and other books mentioned in the bibliography.)

Discussion: Arguments that were used for and against the proposed Factory Acts in behalf of children in England in 1830. (See "English Social Reformers," Gibbins; "Industrial and Social England," Cheyney; and Traill's "Social England," vols. V and VI, histories of political economy, etc.)

FEBRUARY 17-24—

Roll-call: Reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways in this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Summary, by leader of chapter in "Ten Frenchmen," on Fourier.

Paper: Thiers and Gambetta compared. First as to their early training, etc. Then by taking up in chronological order the striking political events in which both were concerned and showing how the character of each led him to act in the circumstances.

Reading: Sketch of Beranger and one of his poems (see the Warner "Library of the World's Best Literature").

Oral Report: Answer to the question, "Why was Germany in 1871 a different enemy from the one which Napoleon crushed in 1806?" (See "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," Judson; Fyffe's "History of Modern Europe," and other histories.)

Reading: Selection from "Reminiscences of Thiers and Gambetta" (see *Century*, 1:439 and 3:708).

FEBRUARY 24-MARCH 3—

Oral Report: Incidents of Victor Hugo's early life (see *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 25:115). Review of "Les Misérables" (see *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 25:126).

Roll-call: Answers to the question, What facts in relation to Victor Hugo first come to your mind when he is mentioned? In other words what incidents in his life or qualities of his works have made a special impression upon you?

Brief Selections from "Characteristics of Hugo's Work and Career," in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 25:132.

Reading: Selections from "Ninety-Three." (See The Library Shelf.)

Recitation or Reading: "The Retreat from

Moscow" or other poem of Victor Hugo's (see Warner's "Library of the World's Best Literature"; also "Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century"), or from articles on Hugo in *Harper's Magazine*, 102:100 and 444, and *Scribner's Magazine*, 21:108.

THE TRAVEL CLUB

FIRST WEEK—

Roll-call: Legends relating to different German cities as embodied in German poetry. (See Longfellow's "Poems of Places;" the two volumes of the series on Germany.)

Paper: Some Customs of the Hanseatic Towns. (See "The Hansa Towns," Zimmern.)

Reading: The story of "The Victual Brothers" from "The Hansa Towns."

Paper: Lübeck's share in the affairs of the Hansa League.

Oral Reports: Items of interest relating to other cities of the League.

SECOND WEEK—

Roll-call: Quotations from German poetry expressive of patriotism. (See "Germany and the Germans," Chap. I, and poems of Körner and Arndt.)

Discussion: The strong and weak points of the German military system. (See "Germany and the Germans," "German Life in Town and Country," etc.)

Reading: Selections from *The Living Age*, 209: 131, April 11, 1896, on the Baltic Canal, or from Longfellow's "Poets and Poetry of Europe."

Oral Report: The Smallest Gem in the Kaiser's Crown. (*THE CHAUTAUQUAN* 35: 25, April, 1902.)

Book Review: Elizabeth in Rügen (by author of Elizabeth and her German Garden).

Reading: Selection from "Bismarck at Friedrichsruh," *Century*, 25:94 (1893).

Oral Report: Anecdotes of Bismarck. [See *Review of Reviews*, 18:291 (1898).]

THIRD WEEK—

Roll-call: Answers to Search Questions and other items regarding the city government of Hamburg. (See *New International* and other encyclopedias.)

Oral Report: Klopstock and his influence upon German thought. (See histories of German literature, especially that by Kuno Francke.)

Reading: Lowell's poem, "An Incident of the Fire at Hamburg."

Paper: Lessing and his life at Hamburg.

Reading: The Story of Minna von Barnhelm, with selections from the play. The parts should be assigned to different members. (See "Studies in German Literature," R. Hochdoerfer.)

FOURTH WEEK—

Roll-call: Points of view concerning Germany, secured from Germans of our own acquaintance.

Review of article on Hamburg.

Oral Reports: German pleasures and pastimes. (See "German Life in Town and Country.")

Reading: Selections from "The Playground Movement in Germany." (See other pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.)

Review: Article on "Hamburg's New Sanitary Impulse," by Albert Shaw. *Atlantic*, 73:787 (June, 1894). (This is a very remarkable article showing how Hamburg learned her lesson from the cholera scourge in 1892.)

Discussion: The German Press. How is it superior and how inferior to our own. (See bibliography.)

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JANUARY READINGS

ERA OF SOCIAL SPECULATION AND EXPERIMENT

1. Caius Sempronius Gracchus was a younger brother of Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus "the younger." He brought forward a series of resolutions looking to the substitution of a free democracy for the existing aristocratic republican form of government in the Roman state. He secured the support of the proletariat by the free distribution of grain at the expense of the state. 2. Brook Farm Association; the community of the Shakers; the Oneida Community; communities at New Harmony, Indiana; Zoar, Ohio; Amana, Iowa. 3. One of the colleges of the University of Paris. It is devoted chiefly to theology. 4. College founded in 1529 and designed, then, to promote the more advanced tendencies of the time. It has now about forty chairs. 5. Members of the French Academy. 6. Chartism. 7. The socialists and radicals in 1848, who wanted France to adopt a red flag. They were supposed to favor bloody means of reform. 8. Louis Napoleon was the son of Hortense Beauharnais, daughter of Napoleon

Bonaparte's first wife Josephine. 9. General Cavaignac. He received only 1,500,000 votes to Napoleon's 7,300,000.

MUNICH: THE CITY ON THE ISAR

Eugene Beauharnais, son of Alexandre de Beauharnais and Josephine, afterwards empress of France, was a soldier and statesman, and was one of Napoleon's generals. After Napoleon's banishment he retired to Bavaria where he obtained the principality of Eichstadt and the title of Duke of Leuchtenberg. 2. Otho I, second son of Louis I of Bavaria, becoming king of Greece, adopted for the Greek flag the colors of his native land. 3. Beer. 4. Frauenhofer was an optician and physicist. He made remarkably perfect lenses and prisms and invented a heliometer, micrometer, and refracting telescope. His great discovery was that of the dark lines in the solar spectrum which are known as "Frauenhofer's Lines." 5. Conrad Wilhelm Röntgen. 6. Justus von Liebig. 7. Goethe's "Faust," and "Reinecke Fuchs."

THE LIBRARY SHELF

VICTOR HUGO'S "NINETY-THREE"

No description in all the work of Victor Hugo is more instinct with dramatic feeling than his famous account of the runaway cannon in "Ninety-three." The scene of the story is laid in the Vendée, and Chautauqua readers who have been watching during these past few weeks the seething struggle of the French Revolution will find it a most opportune time to read this stirring tale. The Vendée was one of the most prolific sources of perplexity to the Revolutionary leaders and Victor Hugo has used this dramatic material to great advantage in his "Ninety-three." The episode of the cannon is in itself typical of some phases of the revolutionary struggle:

One of the carronades of the battery, a twenty-four pounder, had broken loose.

This is the most dangerous accident that can possibly take place on shipboard. Nothing more terrible can happen to a sloop of war in open sea and under full sail.

A cannon that breaks its moorings suddenly becomes some strange, supernatural beast. It is a machine transformed into a monster. That short mass on wheels moves like a billiard ball, rolls with the rolling of the ship, plunges with the pitching, goes, comes, stops, seems to meditate, starts on its course again, shoots like an arrow, from one end of the vessel to the other, whirls around, slips away, dodges, rears, bangs, crashes, kills, exterminates. It is a battering ram capriciously assaulting a wall. Add to this, the fact that the ram is of metal, the wall of wood.

It is matter set free; one might say, that this eternal slave was avenging itself; it seems as if the total depravity concealed in what we call inanimate things had escaped, and burst forth all of a sudden; it appears to lose patience, and to take a strange mysterious revenge; nothing more relentless than this wrath of the inanimate. This enraged lump leaps like a panther, it has the clumsiness of an elephant, the nimbleness of a mouse, the obstinacy of an axe, the uncertainty of the billows, the zigzag of the lightning, the deafness of the grave. It weighs ten thousand pounds, and it rebounds like a child's ball. It spins and then abruptly darts off at right angles.

And what is to be done? How put an end to it? A tempest ceases, a cyclone passes over, a wind dies down, a broken mast can be replaced, a leak can be stopped, a fire can be extinguished, but what will become of this enormous brute of bronze? How can it be captured? You can reason with a bulldog, astonish a bull, fascinate a boa, frighten a tiger, tame a lion; but you have no resource against this monster, a loose cannon. You cannot kill it, it is dead; and at the same time it lives. It lives with a sinister life which comes to it from the infinite. The deck beneath it gives it full swing. It is moved by the ship, which is moved by the sea, which is moved by the

wind. This destroyer is a toy. The ship, the waves, the winds, all play with it, hence its frightful animation. What is to be done with this apparatus? How fetter this stupendous engine of destruction? How anticipate its comings and goings, its returns, its stops, its shocks? Any one of its blows on the side of the ship may stave it in. How foretell its frightful meanderings? It is dealing with a projectile, which alters its mind, which seems to have ideas, and changes its direction every instant. How check the course of what must be avoided? The horrible cannon struggles, advances, backs, strikes right, strikes left, retreats, passes by, disconcerts expectation, grids up obstacles, crushes men like flies. All the terror of the situation is in the fluctuations of the flooring. How fight an inclined plane subject to caprices? The ship has, so to speak, in its belly, an imprisoned thunderstorm, striving to escape; something like a thunderbolt rumbling above an earthquake.

In an instant the whole crew was on foot. It was the fault of the gun captain, who had neglected to fasten the screw-nut of the mooring-chain, and had insecurely clogged the four wheels of the gun carriage; this gave play to the sole of the framework, separated the two platforms and finally the breeching. The tackle had given way, so the cannon was no longer firm on its carriage. The stationary breeching which prevents recoil, was not in use at this time. A heavy sea struck the port, the carronade insecurely fastened had recoiled and broken its chain, and began its terrible course over the deck.

To form an idea of this strange sliding, let one imagine a drop of water running over glass.

The enormous gun was left alone. It was given up to itself. It was its own master, and master of the ship. It could do what it pleased. This whole crew, accustomed to laugh in time of battle, now trembled. To describe the terror is impossible.

Captain Boisberthelot and Lieutenant La Vieuville, although both dauntless men, stopped at the head of the companionway, and dumb, pale, and hesitating, looked down on the deck below. Some one elbowed past and went down.

It was their passenger, the peasant, the man of whom they had just been speaking a moment before.

Reaching the foot of the companion-way, he stopped.

There was just sea enough to make the accident as bad as possible. A tempest would have been desirable, for it might have upset the cannon, and with its four wheels once in the air there would be some hope of getting it under control. Meanwhile the havoc increased.

There were splits and fractures in the masts, which are set into the framework of the keel and rise above the decks of ships like great, round pillars. The convulsive blows of the cannon had cracked the mizzen-mast, and had cut into the main-mast.

The battery was being ruined. Ten pieces out of thirty were disabled; the breaches in

the side of the vessel were increasing, and the corvette was beginning to leak.

The old passenger, having gone down to the gun deck, stood like a man of stone at the foot of the steps. He cast a stern glance over this scene of devastation. He did not move. It seemed impossible to take a step forward. Every movement of the loose carronade threatened the ship's destruction. A few moments more and shipwreck would be inevitable.

Suddenly, in the midst of this inaccessible ring, where the escaped cannon was leaping, a man was seen to appear, with an iron bar in his hand. He was the author of the catastrophe, the captain of the gun, guilty of criminal carelessness and the cause of the accident, the master of the carronade. Having done the mischief, he was anxious to repair it. He had seized the iron bar in one hand, a tiller-rope with a slipnoose in the other, and jumped down the hatchway to the gun deck.

Then began an awful sight; a Titanic scene; the contest between gun and gunner; the battle of matter and intelligence, the duel between man and the inanimate.

The man stationed himself in a corner, and with bar and rope in his two hands, he leaned against one of the riders, braced himself on his legs, which seemed two steel posts, and livid, calm, tragic, as if rooted to the deck, he waited.

He waited for the cannon to pass by him.

The gunner knew his gun, and it seemed to him as if the gun ought to know him. He had lived long with it. How many times he had thrust his hand into its mouth. It was his own familiar monster. He began to speak to it as if it were a dog.

"Come," he said. Perhaps he loved it.

He seemed to wish it to come to him.

But to come to him was to come upon him. And then he would be lost. How could he avoid being crushed? That was the question. All looked on in terror.

Not a breast breathed freely, unless perhaps that of the old man, who was alone in the battery with the two contestants, a stern witness.

He might be crushed himself by the cannon. He did not stir.

Beneath them the sea blindly directed the contest.

At the moment when the gunner, accepting this frightful hand-to-hand conflict, challenged the cannon, some chance rocking of the sea caused the carronade to remain for an instant motionless and as if stupefied. "Come, now," said the man. It seemed to listen.

Suddenly it leaped toward him. The man dodged the blow.

The battle began. Battle unprecedented. Frailty struggling against the invulnerable. The gladiator of flesh attacking the beast of brass. On one side, brute force; on the other, a human soul.

All this was taking place in semi-darkness. It was like the shadowy vision of a miracle.

A soul—strange to say, one would have thought the cannon also had a soul; but a soul full of hatred and rage. This sightless thing seemed to have eyes. The monster appeared to lie in wait for the man. One would have at least believed that there was craft in the mass. It also chose its time. It was a strange, gigantic insect of metal, having or seeming to

have the will of a demon. For a moment this colossal locust would beat against the low ceiling overhead, then it would come down on its four wheels like a tiger on its four paws, and begin to run at the man. He, supple, nimble, expert, writhed away like an adder from all these lightning movements. He avoided a collision, but the blows which he parried fell against the vessel, and continued their work of destruction.

An end of broken chain was left hanging to the carronade. This chain had in some strange way become twisted about the screw of the cascabel. One end of the chain was fastened to the gun-carriage. The other, left loose, whirled desperately about the cannon, making all its blows more dangerous.

The screw held it in a firm grip, adding a thong to a battering-ram, making a terrible whirlwind around the cannon, an iron lash in a brazen hand. This chain complicated the contest.

However, the man went on fighting. Occasionally it was the man who attacked the cannon; he would creep along the side of the vessel, bar and rope in hand, and the cannon as if it understood, and as though suspecting some snare, would flee away. The man, bent on victory, pursued it.

Such things cannot long continue. The cannon seemed to say to itself, all of a sudden, "Come, now. Make an end of it." And it stopped. One felt that the crisis was at hand. The cannon, as if in suspense, seemed to have, or really had—for to all it was a living being—a ferocious malice prepossessed. It made a sudden, quick dash at the gunner. The gunner sprang out of the way, let it pass by, and cried out to it with a laugh, "Try it again." The cannon, as if enraged, smashed a carronade on the port side; then, again seized by the invisible sling which controlled it, it was hurled at the starboard side at the man who made his escape. Three carronades gave way under the blows of the cannon; then, as if blind and not knowing what more to do, it turned its back on the man, rolled from stern to bow, injured the stern and made a breach in the planking of the prow. The man took refuge at the foot of the steps, not far from the old man who was looking on. The gunner held his iron bar in rest. The cannon seemed to notice it, and without taking the trouble to turn around, slid back on the man, swift as the blow of an axe. The man, driven against the side of the ship, was lost. The whole crew cried out in horror.

But the old passenger, till this moment motionless, darted forth more quickly than any of this wildly swift rapidity. He seized a package of counterfeit assignats, and, at the risk of being crushed, succeeded in throwing it between the wheels of the carronade. This decisive and perilous movement could not have been made with more exactness and precision by a man trained in all the exercises described in Duroselle's "Manual of Gun Practice at Sea."

The package had the effect of a clog. A pebble may stop a log, the branch of a tree turn aside an avalanche. The carronade stumbled. The gunner, taking advantage of this critical opportunity, plunged his iron bar between the spokes of one of the hind wheels.

The cannon stopped. It leaned forward. The man using the bar as a lever, held it in equilibrium. The heavy mass was overthrown, with the crash of a falling bell, and the man, rushing with all his might, dripping with per-

spiration, passed the slipnoose around the bronze neck of the subdued monster.

It was ended. The man had conquered. The ant had control over the mastodon; the pigmy had taken the thunderbolt prisoner.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

"Chautauqua represents the true and healthy relationship of literature and life to one another. Its students are scholars who are at the same time men and women deeply involved in the business of living."—Phillips Brooks.

The Round Table presented an animated scene at the first meeting of the year, for the atmosphere seemed to be surcharged with good resolutions. New members who had been timidly feeling their way as Chautauquans now showed symptoms of a self reliant spirit born of experience. "Do you know," remarked one of the '08 Wisconsin readers, "our church is starting a series of special religious meetings, and some one not a member actually proposed that we suspend the Circle for six weeks! It was an appalling suggestion. Of course, we stand for the altruistic spirit of Chautauqua, but this seemed to some of us about equal to committing *harakiri*. Fortunately our pastor came to the rescue and personally requested us to continue as usual. He said that he considered the higher religious life distinctly promoted by the Circle and that he felt we were one of the most vital institutions of the church. Well, this put a new view of our responsibility before us. We've considered the matter a good deal and a little later, when the religious meetings are over, we propose to hold an open meeting with the finest program that we can conjure up, and try to show what Chautauqua means."

These utterances met with such pronounced approval from the Round Table that Pendragon assumed a slightly apologetic attitude as he said, "I was about to remark that I thought we couldn't do better this New Year's day than to reverse the time honored sentiment 'Ring out the old, ring in the new,' and ring in some of our older Circles, notably the 'Societies of the Hall in the Grove.' This spirited speech from the freshman side of the Round Table doubtless indicates that there are more of the same kind in reserve, but as they have already rung in the new to such good purpose I am sure they will be glad to hear from the 'old' who have survived whole decades of good resolutions. So let us hear first from the C. L. S. C. Alumni Association, of Syracuse, New York, which is proud of its nineteen years of life." "Yes we have a good 'constitution,'" responded Mrs. White, the secretary. "It has been the backbone of our organization all these years. These are our objects according to its dictum: 'The promotion of acquaintance and social fellowship

among graduates, the continuing of interest in Chautauqua work, and the forwarding of all movements for the extension of the Chautauqua Idea among the people.' We have had seventy-six graduates in our society and have a present membership of twenty. We organized the 'White Circle' of this city and as fast as its members graduate they come into our society. We meet four times a year, and the first meeting is always given up to reports from delegates to Chautauqua. This year we held our first meeting on Sunday afternoon and used the Chautauqua Vesper Service."

"Our Chautauqua Vesper Service is already rich in historical associations," said Pendragon, as he opened a letter. "One of our Kentucky graduates of the class of '89, Mrs. Leech, tells of pleasant experiences with it on a Mediterranean tour last winter. It was read on Sunday, February 7, and again on February 21 on the deck of the American Nile boat. On the 14th in the old temple of Luxor in a chapel once used as a Christian Church, and again on the 28th of February, in the garden of the Continental Hotel at Cairo. In March Mrs. Leech was in Palestine and on the 13th, in Jerusalem, with a little company of people, read the service in the garden of Gordon's tomb at the foot of Calvary. Later at the Hughes Hotel in Jerusalem, Dr. Herbert Willett of the University of Chicago, who was in charge of a party of students visiting Palestine, used the Vesper leaflet in connection with a communion service. And on Sunday, March 20, Dr. Willett again conducted the Chautauqua Vespers at Tiberius by the sea of Galilee in camp at twilight. Dr. Henson, of Providence, R. I., made the address and the hymn 'Blue Galilee' was sung in addition to the service."

"A 'Society of the Hall in the Grove' from which we have not often heard," continued Pendragon, "is that of Sinclairville, N. Y. Why they have cut us off from this privilege in these later years does not at present appear, and even now this newspaper clipping chronicling their eighteenth annual banquet is our only source of information. We must have

them with us next year to report in person and explain why they number graduates from '86 to '93 and none from later classes. Such a choice body of spirits, as this S. H. G. evidently represents, can, we feel sure, beguile some younger Chautauquans into the paths of systematic reading, and then help to keep them there!

"A near neighbor to the Sinclairville Circle is the 'Plus Ultra' of Jamestown, N. Y. These indefatigable Chautauquans represent the spirit of hard study at its best. They are all graduates and have taken various C. L. S. C. special courses. For some years past, under the leadership of Mrs. A. H. Hatch, who has especially prepared herself for the work, they have devoted themselves to Dante, and Browning with very happy results. Photographs in great numbers have been at their disposal and they have enriched their studies of these two poets by following up the historical and literary allusions of the poems. Last year they took up the 'Reading Journey Through France,' and this year report that they are pursuing the journey through Belgium and Germany with great interest and pleasure."

"While you are speaking of Study Circles, I might make my report." The speaker hereupon explained that she was the secretary of the S. H. G., of Coudersport, Pennsylvania. "We want you to know," she said, "that we are starting our year in fine shape with thirty-three members. Coudersport is an old Chautauqua town and we have had a decade of experience which I fancy few of you can parallel. I won't go into details now, but merely assure you that we are wide awake and as true Chautauquans as ever. We are devoting this part of our year to Browning."

"Before we look up the Western Societies we must hear from two more in New York State," said Pendragon, "and I want to introduce the secretary of the Jamaica Alumni, Miss Bergen. It was of these Chautauquans, in their early graduate days, that some one said they knew their Greek poets better than most college graduates, but I must let Miss Bergen speak for them." "Our work," responded the secretary, "has been largely literary, but we have tried to remember that alumni should encourage the growth of their Alma Mater. We have never formed any circles, but we have encouraged isolated readers by inviting them to join the Alumni as associate members, and we have invited strangers, who have come to our community and who had been Chautauqua readers, to unite with us. Our special lines of study have been quite varied. We took a course in 'Epics' under Chautauqua direction, studying for several years the Iliad and Odyssey, the Aeneid, Divine Comedy, Song of

Roland, The Cid, Idylls of the King, etc. Later, we had a good time with Persian history and literature. Last spring we took up Nature Study for some months, and this fall we told the C. L. S. C. office that we wanted something 'human,' so we have been set to work on a course in Sociology and Social Problems. This we trust will have a good effect upon our altruistic spirit. We are certainly finding it absorbingly interesting."

"New York State has a fine record for Societies of the Hall in the Grove," commented Pendragon, as he referred to his card catalogue, "and I see many of them are represented here, but we have time for only one more report to-day and this from the Long Island S. H. G. who have just been holding a reception for their new president, Rev. George M. Brown." "We consider ourselves especially fortunate in having Mr. Brown in Brooklyn," replied the secretary, Miss Teal, "for, as many of you know, he has been a prime mover in the Connecticut Chautauqua which has become a splendid C. L. S. C. center, and he has visited assemblies all through the country and is rarely equipped as a leader. We had a most delightful gathering on the evening of November 17. As our members arrived, each received a section of one of the Chautauqua mottoes, which had to be fitted into its proper place, as a preliminary exercise. If there were any present who did not know the mottoes, they went home wiser! We met in Lockwood Academy, formerly an old Brooklyn mansion, and its spacious drawing room proved to be particularly adapted to Chautauqua reunions. Mr. Brown was greeted with the Chautauqua song, 'Join, O Friends, in a Memory Song.' Dr. Bosworth, the second vice-president, took the chair in the absence of Mrs. Harris, who has been our vice-president for many years. Our program was not elaborate—music by a ladies' quartet, an address of welcome, and a response by Mr. Brown. The address of welcome fell to me and I was glad to have the opportunity of giving our president a unique little souvenir, the handiwork of one of the members, Miss Spurway. It was a bouquet of carnations tied with ribbon of our graduate color. One end of the ribbon was finished in little rosettes of the four undergraduate colors, blue, gray, olive and old gold, and attached to the other was a tiny booklet with a leaf for each class, with its motto, from '82 to '04. Before we adjourned the following letter from Chancellor Vincent was received with great appreciation:

Will you express to the members of the Long Island S. H. G. my satisfaction at the election of Dr. George Brown to the presidency? His success in the past and his unchallenged loyalty to Chautauqua, together with his genuine devotion to all that is just and large and

beautiful, give promise of a noble future for your society. With best wishes, faithfully yours,
JOHN H. VINCENT.

"You may like to know that one of our members traveled eighty miles to be with us. I ought to add also that by a fortunate circumstance, we were really celebrating the decennial of the society, for it was just ten years ago on the same date, that we held our Chautauqua Convention in Brooklyn, and the Jamaica Alumni, from whom you have first heard, took charge of the entertainment of the convention for that afternoon and evening."



"Here is very tangible evidence," said Pendragon, as he held up a little booklet, "that our western Societies of the Hall in the Grove are creditably active. The interior of this program shows that the 'Hall in the Grove' of Lincoln, Nebraska, did some fine work on Russia last year. I have, personally, most delightful recollections of an evening with this so-



PROGRAM OF THE
HALL IN THE
GROVE, LINCOLN,
NEB.

ciety more than ten years ago. They were organized C. L. S. G. class graduated at the neighboring assembly at Crete, Nebraska. These Lincoln Chautauquans for a number of years also had the oversight of a 'Look Forward' Chautauqua Circle in the penitentiary in their city, and we must congratulate them that, after these sixteen years, they still show a membership of nearly thirty."

"While we are speaking of Russia I must show you the latest work on Chautauqua from that country. This pamphlet is at the service of any who may like to read it at the close of the Round Table! I may explain for those who are not familiar with Russian that the title is "A Remarkable Educational and Pedagogical Center in the United States." It was written for the Russian magazine *Russkaya Shkola* by Dr. I. M. Rubinow, a native Russian now connected with the Department of Agriculture at Washington. Dr. Rubinow has visited Chautauqua and believes in its work so thoroughly that he has taken this opportunity of making it known to his countrymen."

"We are not as old a club as Lincoln, for our S. H. G. dates only from '99," remarked a Creston, Iowa, delegate, "but we are combining study and outside effort. We recruit our society from the two undergraduate circles in the

ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНЫЙ И НАУЧНЫЙ ЦЕНТР В С.-АМЕРИКАНСКОЙ ШКОЛЕ

(По личным наблюдениям)

1. Народный дом в Чотокгу.

"Чотокгу, во-первых, учебное учреждение и имеет такое же место, как и действительные отношения к другим учебным учреждениям. Чотокгу не является вторичным в области среднего образования, как Соединенных Штатов, ибо это, наоборот, самая первая система народного образования. Чотокгу не старается иметь высшего учебного заведения, ибо в этой области тоже заметна. Но Чотокгу старается обогатить эти две области и стоит особняком на своей почве, возмущая область до сих пор незанятую. Кто бы мог думать, что первоклассными результатами деятельности Чотокгу?"

Но Чотокгу, нечто больше, чем учебное заведение—это социальное движение, и я сомневаюсь, можно ли видеть философию этого движения, так быстро распространившегося по всей стране и во всем цивилизованному миру, движению, благотворным влиянием которого отражается на сотни тысяч людей.

Взглянув на историю Чотокгу, мы должны отметить, что Чотокгу профессора Вильям Харрис, президент Чикагского университета. И если бы этой рецензии была недостаточно, то я мог бы привести не менее заслуживающей внимания историю фонда Харриса, занимающегося теорией истории в Чикагском университете. Неподалеку от Чотокгу, говорил профессор Харрис одному другу, распространяющемуся с Чикагской системой домов в Чотокгу, и мы находимся на самом деле в Чотокгу, а не в Чотокгу, если только не находимся с самой интересной историей в Соединенных Штатах—история, на пути в Чотокгу.

Однако, вероятно, не Харрис, но Харрис, во-первых, был одним из тех, кто уехал из Нью-Йорка. Но стоило думать: где в 1898 году, душевное физическое и политическое. Подумать было полон, порою думал и душевное состояние. Говорят, однажды привели предположения, во время сенсационных событий. Народный дом

RUSSIAN TITLE PAGE OF ARTICLE ON CHAUTAUQUA

city and this year are meeting every other week to read and study Shakespeare. Then we have also joined hands with the women's clubs of our town and have had a share in school decoration, village improvement, and this year in securing funds to build a twelve room annex to our hospital. We take pleasure in feeling that Chautauqua is actually identified with so many of the public enterprises of our city."

As the speaker resumed her seat, the secretary of the circle at Marion, Iowa, took the floor saying, "I should like to report for our Alumni. We are only four years old but we have kept up our Chautauqua study habits and have taken special seal work, meeting every two weeks. One year we gave a purse of ten dollars toward our new town library, another year we bought the books of the American Provincial Life course, and, after finishing them, contributed them to the library. This library was sustained by the different clubs of our city until this fall. Now, with Mr. Carnegie's help and a tax upon the town, we are assured of a permanent building and library." "Do you remember what Stevenson once said about book?" queried Pendragon. "Books are good enough in their own way, but they are a mighty bloodless substitute for life." I'm glad that our graduates are standing for 'life' as well as for books." As one of the Ohio dele-

gates was next introduced she laid on the table an attractive little booklet. "It's the program," she explained, "of our last summer's celebration."

"You see," she continued, "when our first class graduated in '86 there were so many of us that we decided to form a close corporation and meet once a year for a class reunion. But we soon realized that this was not a proper Chautauqua point of view, for there was still the local circle. To whom could they look up if not to us? So we became an S. H. G., and if you look at this other page of our program you will see how many different classes we can claim. Our members are widely scattered, some as far away as California, but those who cannot attend our gatherings send letters, and these annual reunions are great events in our history and help to encourage undergraduates to finish their work."



"A different form of alumni from any of those thus far represented is indicated by this badge," said Pendragon as he drew from an envelope a dainty white badge printed in old blue. This is the ensign of the Jefferson County Alumni in northern New York. They meet once a year, and, according to all accounts, have a glorious time. The members gather from all over the county and it is really a fashion to be commended. Such a plan for scattered communities would be very feasible in these days of suburban trolley lines. These Chautauquans met



JEFFERSON CO., NEW YORK, C. L. S. C. ALUMNI BADGE.

this year in Belleville, nearly thirty out of the sixty on the roll responding to their names. A charming program of a literary and musical character was rendered, preceded by a dinner served by the Belleville circle at the home of Mrs. Waite. I hope some of those present who live in rural communities will seriously consider the feasibility of such a plan. The Association, you notice, has flourished under this plan for six years.

"And now before we close," he continued, "we must have greetings from the Pacific Coast. Here is the delegate from the C. L. S. C. Alumni of California, an elect company which has been holding reunions for sixteen years! Let me introduce Miss Retta Parrott of

Sacramento." The speaker thus presented explained that their society was not a study club but a social organization meeting once a year. "Our annual meeting," she said, "takes the form of a banquet. Programs, menu and decorations usually celebrate some important event of the year. This year was Russo-Japanese. The meeting was held in the new home of Mr. and Mrs. George W. Purnell on October 21. We opened our meeting with 'America' as a preliminary step toward a better understanding of Russo-Japanese affairs! Our president gave a short address; we had two fine papers on Japan and Russia respectively, and then two musical numbers, a humorous Japanese love song, and a piano solo written by a Russian composer. Our banquet hall was decorated with the chrysanthemum, in honor of Japan, and, I see, in reviewing our toast list once more, that there was a decided Japanese flavor about most of the subjects. However we Californians may view the Chinese question, you can see we are strongly pro-Japanese. These were our toasts. I abridge some of the titles slightly: 'The Little Brown Man,' 'The Little Brown Women Who Weep,' 'The Battlefields With Their Modern Methods,' 'Making Light of the Subject,' 'The Japanese Hobson,' and 'A Retreat in Good Order.' As a Russian sidelight, one of our number, a friend of Count Sobieski, of Poland, gave us a most entertaining sketch of his career. He is claimed by Russia's enemies as the rightful king of their country. I must not omit to state that we are near neighbors to the Pacific Coast Assembly at Monterey, and we were delighted to welcome Mr. H. N. Bevier, vice-president of the State Chautauqua Association. Let me say also that we have a prosperous undergraduate circle in Sacramento, due to the efforts of members of our Alumni."

"You all remember," said Pendragon, as the speaker retired, "how the Duchess in 'Alice in Wonderland' often interrupted conversation with the remark, 'and the moral of that is'—I believe before we close this meeting we should discover its 'moral.' First, there is no doubt from your experience that a Society of the Hall in the Grove is important from a social point of view. It cultivates friendly feeling and keeps alive the memory of achievements that were worth while. Second, it ought to be a distinct power in the community: when people or societies begin to fall back upon their past it is a symptom of decline, and the word Chautauqua ought not to be linked with any ideal lower than 'Education ends only with life.' By this I do not mean that every S. H. G. should be a study club. It is often better that it should not be so. But every member

should be engaged in some kind of definite intellectual work, either as a member of a circle or an individual reader, and the Society should call for reports of the status of each member at the annual meeting. Special recognition should be made of those who have added seals to their diplomas during the year. Third, as the representative of Chautauqua in the community, each Society should put forth persistent, intelligent attempts to start new Circles, or interest new readers. The social power of your S. H. G. gives you a splendid chance to hold up an ideal which will attract others. Plan the campaign a long time ahead

and work it out with the same care you devote to founding a library. Fourth, do your share in sustaining the C. L. S. C. spirit at your local Chautauqua, if you have one, and send a delegate to the Mother Chautauqua every year that you can. Direct connection with your Alma Mater is a source of strength, and the splendid vitality which the reports today have exhibited and which is true of large numbers of other societies of the Hall in the Grove, also, shows how important a share you have in promoting the work of the Chautauqua Circle. At our next New Year's meeting let us have even better things to record."



FOUNDATION LESSONS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE. By O. F. and M. S. Woodley and G. R. Carpenter. pp. 269-166. New York: The Macmillan Co.

One more book that takes its place in the valuable series on Composition by Prof. G. R. Carpenter of Columbia University. It is admirable in arrangement, attractive in make up and calculated to lead the school boy and girl to read literature as well as to study grammar.

P. W. B.

PSYCHIC LIFE AND LAWS: THE OPERATIONS AND PHENOMENA OF THE SPIRITUAL ELEMENT IN MAN. By Charles Oliver Sahler, M. D. \$1.50. New York: Fowler and Wells Co.

This remarkable book is the work of a Christian physician in high standing. His style is clear and unpedantic, his spirit strong, yet modest. The scientific value of what Dr. Sahler terms "psychotherapeutics," and the word "hypnotism," is made clear to the mind of the layman. While there is no attempt to uphold the extreme methods of Christian Science and faith healing, nor to discredit the present use of drugs, yet there is no mincing of the fact that "medicine of itself counts for but little. Dr. Sahler lays stress on the personal magnetism of the physician, and enforces his statements by reporting cases that he has successfully treated. Even the reader who is hostile to hypnotic suggestion as a means of cure will be interested in the author's admir-

able exposition of the law of vibration and the nature of the dual mind.

THE ART CRAFTS FOR BEGINNERS. By Frank G. Sanford. Pp. 270. Illustrated. 6¼x5½. \$1.20 net. New York: The Century Co.

A manual giving practical directions for amateurs who desire to learn something of the art crafts, cannot fail to be of interest to the many lovers of artistic handicraft in this country. Mr. Sanford, who is director of Art Crafts at Chautauqua, is well qualified for his work and shows an admirable amount of good sense in suiting his instructions to his audience. Mr. Sanford defines his purpose explicitly: "This book does not enter the wide realm of the professional worker. The solution of his complex and difficult problems is not attempted here. Its mission will be accomplished if it serves to open the mind of the student to the possibilities of his immediate environment, and if the doing of the exercises prepares the way for the more serious work of the professional craftsman." Mr. Sanford has, therefore, not worried himself over artistic theories but has shown the beginner how to use his tools and material to actually make something. If, through the interest thus aroused, the young craftsman wishes to learn more than this book can teach him and study the theory of art, Mr. Sanford will have accomplished a worthy object without prejudicing his readers

"TRAIN UP A CHILD IN THE WAY SHE SHOULD GO"



THE SIMPLICITY OF Pearline's

way of washing has brought
MILLIONS OF WOMEN
to use it and be grate-
ful for its help—Besides,
PEARLINE washes with-
out injury to COLOR,
FABRIC OR HANDS.

Pearline saves at every point

How a
**Thousand
Dollars**
Made a
Million

An Illustrated Booklet
Sent Absolutely Free

to Anybody
addressing
W. G. Vanderbilt,
No. 100 William St.,
New York City.

Low Rates to the West

Northwest, Southwest and
South, via

Nickel Plate Road

1st and 3d Tuesdays each month.
Long return limit.

For full information call on agent or
address

A. C. SHOWALTER, D. P. A.
807 State St., Erie, Pa.

either for or against any one school of artistic expression. The lack in this book of dogmatic insistence upon any "one" correct method and aim of art is refreshing to the nonpartisan reader.

There are nine chapters, treating respectively, Design, Thin Wood-Working, Pyrography, Sheet-Metal Work, Leather Work, Bookbinding, Simple Pottery, Basketry, and Bead Work. In each of these chapters the author gives full directions as to tools, materials, and methods of work. A large number of diagrams and cuts make clear each step in the various processes, and numerous practical suggestions derived from personal experience are an additional source of value. The author's evident purpose of making the necessary equipment for work as inexpensive as is practicable for good results, will be appreciated by novices who are uncertain of their skill but who wish to experiment.

Although Mr. Sanford is free from artistic hobbies, he nevertheless indicates two axioms which no one will dispute and which are essential to the young craftsman if his work is to be artistic: that, first of all, the article made, whether of wood, metal, or leather, is intended for use and its decoration is subordinate, meant merely to beautify it; and, as a corollary to this, decoration must be appropriate and not be, as a picture, sufficient in itself.

The book is neatly bound in cloth and is well printed on paper suitable to its many illustrations.

H. A. G.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION AND LITERATURE. By W. F. Webster. pp. XXVI—318. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Webster's volume is like a large number of good books which have preceded it in this field. The attention of a teacher is attracted by the large amount of material and distracted by its haphazard arrangement. A good reference book but adaptable only to those whose minds habitually work along the same lines with the author's.

P. W. B.

YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF HOLLAND. By William E. Griffis. Illustrated. \$1.50 net. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The author has applied his experienced talents in telling the brave, intelligent and noble part which Holland has had in the making of the civilization of Europe. Due proportion has been observed in the handling of material; appeal is made to young readers by elaboration of the picturesque part of the Netherlands story. Winning land from sea, making it

valuable, defending it, gaining dominion on the sea, destroying feudalism, leading in freedom and learning, enterprise in engineering and exploration, are among the main features emphasized. There are twenty full page historical pictures. The debt of our own country to Holland is not the least of the lessons to be learned from this volume.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. By Henry William Elson. pp. 911—XL \$1.75. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Professor Henry W. Elson has met the need of a compendious, handy popular history of the United States covering the entire story from the discovery of America to the present time. His history which has just come from the press is at once scholarly and popular; the style is clear, terse and fluent; and the author has written the book with such skill and enthusiasm as to make it most interesting. Generous space is given to the life of the people, their habits, modes of life, occupations, general progress, and the like, especially in the earlier periods when they differed most widely from those of the present day. In the discussion of the last century a greater proportion of space is naturally given to political and constitutional development. The civil war is treated fully and dispassionately. The brevity of the mention of American literature finds its explanation in the length of the volume even as it stands. In a dozen ways the reader is reminded of Green's Short History of England by this book—a fact by which the author will doubtless profit.

P. W. B.

NOTES FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION. By G. R. Carpenter. pp. 30. 25 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.

To be used in connection with Elements of Rhetoric and English Composition, first high school course by the same author.

GOD'S CHILDREN: A MODERN ALLEGORY. By James Allman. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.

A thoroughly disagreeable example of socialism gone wrong. The author is content to choose a beautiful and striking title, yet in the very beginning, after employing language so clumsily sacrilegious as not to merit quotation, he concludes with the remark: "This God will not suit my purpose, I do not like him and will not have him." Mr. Allman's humor is an attempt at the sort of satire which Byron and Shelly used with some skill; but this modern allegory turns on such rusty hinges that all high-minded and intelligent socialists must be ashamed of it.

